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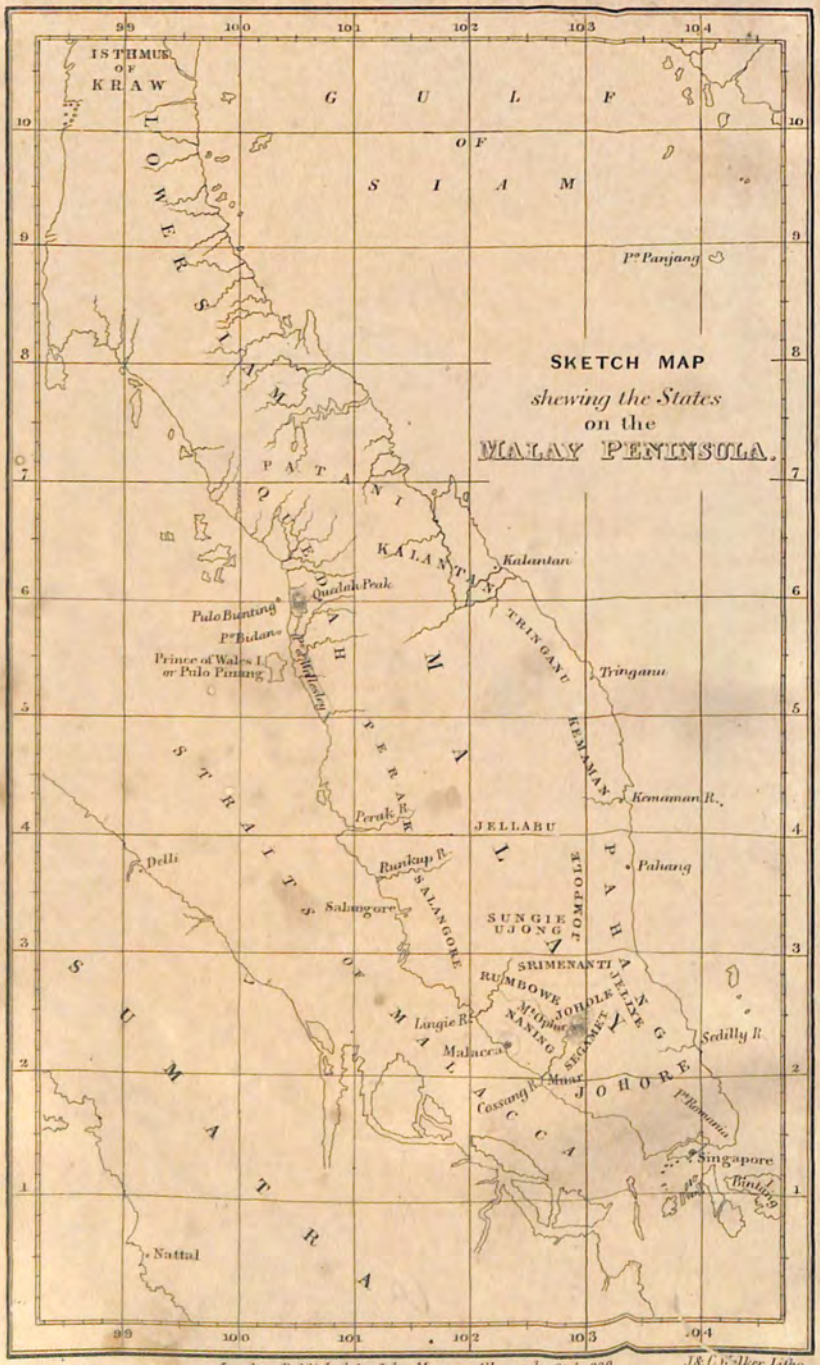
BRITISH SETTLEMENTS

IN

THE STRAITS OF MALACCA,

&c. &c.

VOL. I.



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POLITICAL AND STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

BRITISH SETTLEMENTS

IN THE

STRAITS OF MALACCA,

VIZ.

Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore;

WITH A HISTORY OF

THE MALAYAN STATES

ON THE PENINSULA OF MALACCA.

88549

BY T. J. NEWBOLD, Esq.

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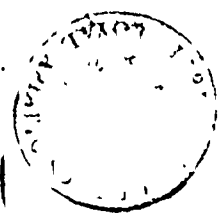
IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.



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PREFACE.

THE writer of this work has little occasion to trouble his readers with any prefatory introduction, further than a statement of his reasons for its obtrusion on the public, and an acknowledgment of the sources from which his information has been principally drawn. Should it be found, that the latter has been neglected on the occasion of quotation, he here begs to offer his apology, and to tender the "amende honourable" for the accidental omission. The authorities, to whom he stands most indebted, are Mr. Marsden, Mr. Crawfurd, Sir Stamford Raffles, Mr. Anderson, Captain Lowe, Dr. Ward, and the Straits Weekly Press. He feels extremely grateful for the liberal and ready access afforded him to the Govern-

ment Archives, by the Straits functionaries, and for the kind assistance of his friends, Brigadier General Wilson, C.B., the Honourable Mr. Garling, and Mr. Westerhout, of Malacca.

The original matter embraces the result of observations, made during a residence of three years in the Straits, and a constant intercourse, with the Native Chiefs on the Malayan Peninsula, put together at various periods, as leisure permitted. This, and other causes beyond the writer's control, compel him to throw himself upon the reader's indulgence for any want of connexion, or for any repetitions that may appear. Some of the papers on the Native States have already been published in the pages of the journals of the Asiatic Societies of Bengal and Madras, but have since undergone revision.

The ambition of the writer has not been to produce what is commonly termed an amusing book, but one which might convey his mite of usefulness to the Public. He indulges the hope

also, that it may perchance excite attention to a portion of the British possessions, daily becoming of more vital interest in our system of colonial policy, from the present unsettled and stormy aspect of affairs in China. Should these objects be attained, or in any degree promoted, his toil will be amply recompensed; if not, he must rest content with having, to the best of his circumscribed means and ability, at least made the endeavour to be of service to his country, and to the public at large.

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ERRATA.

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Page 10. line 1, *for* Pohang *read* Pahang.
13, .. 3, *for* artizan *read* artisan.
39, .. 27, *for* Tringaun *read* Tringanu.
140, .. 13, *for* p. 29 *read* p. 13.
196, .. 6, *erase the comma after* Qualla.
245, .. 13, *for* Ranjow *read* Ranjows.
268, .. 26, *for* Kamschatka *read* Kamtschatka.
350, .. 25, *after* navigation *read* and.
366, .. 18, *for* fine, cleft, *read* five-cleft.
400, .. 12, *for* flow *read* flows.
418, .. 12, *for* head *read* heads.

BRITISH SETTLEMENTS

IN

THE STRAITS OF MALACCA.

CHAPTER I.

General view of the British Settlements in the Straits, comprehending Geographical positions.—Seasons and winds.—History of the Establishment.—Present form of Government.—Population.—Chinese settlers.—Price of Labour.—Political and Commercial Relations. — Commerce. — Currency. — Weights and Measures. — Administration of Justice. — Expenses of the Queen's Court of Judicature.—Military Establishment and its expense to the State.—Revenue and Expenditure of the three Settlements, and total annual cost to Government.—Piracy, its causes, with hints for the suppression of. — Noted piratical haunts. — Remarks on European and American Colonization.

THE Straits of Malacca to the north, and the Straits of Sunda to the south, are the two great channels of intercourse between China, the Indian Archipelago, Continental India, and the western

world. The Straits of Malacca immediately connect the Bay of Bengal with the China seas, and are formed by the island of Sumatra and the Malay peninsula. The latter, stretching out from the great continent of Asia in a south-by-easterly direction, and terminating within a degree and a half of the equator, constitutes the eastern limits; while the northern part of the great island of Sumatra, taking an almost parallel direction, constitutes the opposite or western boundary.

Geographically speaking, these Straits lie between the equator, and the 9th degree of north latitude, and the 94th and 104th degree of east longitude.

Below the northern entrance, close to the Malayan peninsula, and nearly parallel with Achin head—the northern point of Sumatra, lies the small island of Pinang—the site of our first settlement; 260 miles farther down the Straits, on the coast of the peninsula, stands our next establishment—Malacca; 120 miles below Malacca, close to the south-eastern extremity of the peninsula, and almost commanding the entrance into the China seas, stands our latest and most thriving settlement—Singapore—on an island separated by a narrow strait from the main.

With the exception of a small extent of terri-

tory on the peninsula, opposite Pinang, and around Malacca, the coasts on both sides are in possession of Malay chiefs, who are generally notorious for their encouragement of piracy; and the numerous jungly inlets are the resort of professed buccaneers or needy fishermen.

The influence of the monsoons, which so decidedly mark the seasons of India, is not equally felt in the Straits. This appears to be the case with all countries situated near the equator. Enough, however, is experienced to regulate the navigation, and to serve for a division of the year into the wet and dry seasons. The south-west monsoon, or dry season, may be said to commence in May; and the north-east monsoon, or wet season, in October. November, December, and January are commonly the most rainy months in the year.

The tempestuous squalls called "Sumatras," because they rise in the direction of the island of Sumatra, prevail during the S. W. monsoon; and are attended with violent currents of wind, with rain, thunder and lightning. The north-westers occur shortly after the N. E. monsoon sets in. Whirlwinds and water-spouts are by no means of rare occurrence. The wind in either monsoon does not blow with the same steadiness in the Strait, as in higher latitudes. The sheltered

situation of its channel, lying between the high mountains of Sumatra to the west, and the Malayan chain to the east, contributes much to the state of the wind, as well as to the baffling calms so much complained of by navigators. The term "dry season" must not be understood in the same sense as when applied to the climate of continental India; for during its continuance in the vicinity of the equator, even three successive days rarely pass without a refreshing shower. To this, and the general moisture of the atmosphere, is mainly attributable the perpetual verdure, with which the Malayan peninsula and the beautiful islands of the Indian Archipelago are so profusely clad.

Prior to the close of the last century, Great Britain had no settlement in the Straits, beyond petty factories at Achin and Quedah. In July, 1786, the island of Pinang was transferred by Captain Light to the East India Company; an establishment was then formed, and Captain Light judiciously placed at the head of it. At this time the Dutch were in possession of Malacca, and of Rhio, on the island of Bintan, near Singapore. Malacca was occupied by the British in 1795; and, lastly, Singapore in 1818. Malacca was restored to Holland at the peace of Amiens in 1801; again taken at the re-commencement of

hostilities in 1807; restored after the peace in 1818; and resumed a third time in 1825, by the British, in whose possession it still remains.

Captain Light, after establishing the colony on Prince of Wales's island in defiance of the obstacles presented by a dense forest and noxious swamps, died in 1794. Mr. Manningham then undertook charge of the new settlement; but, resigning in consequence of ill health, he was succeeded by Major Macdonald, in 1796. The latter died in 1799, and was followed by Sir George Leith; in whose time the final arrangements for the transfer of the island, and a tract of territory on the main were made with the Rajah of Quedah, which will be treated of in their proper places. Up to 1805, the governors of Pinang had been directly subordinate to the Bengal administration. At this period the Court of Directors, in pursuance of a resolution to form the Straits into a separate presidency, sent out the Honourable Philip Dundas, as governor; Mr. Oliphant, as first member of council; Mr. Pearson, as secretary; and Mr. Raffles (then an extra-clerk in the India-house and afterwards governor of Java), as assistant-secretary, with a train of civilians. Mr. Dundas died at Pinang early in April 1807, when he was succeeded by Mr. Pearson. On the 17th of October in the same year, Colonel Norman

M^c^Alister took his seat as governor, Mr. Pearson returning to his former place in council. The Honourable Mr. Bruce, brother to the Earl of Elgin, succeeded in March 1810, but died in December following. Mr. Seton, a Bengal civilian formerly resident at Delhi, was next appointed by Lord Minto, who was then preparing for the expedition against Java. Mr. Petrie, of the Madras civil service, remained governor till 1817, when he died. His successor, Colonel Bannerman, died in 1819. Mr. Philips, member of the Pinang council, came next; on whose return to Europe in 1824, Mr. Fullerton, of the Madras civil service, took his place in the island. In 1826, both Malacca and Singapore became incorporated with the Pinang government. Before this the latter had been attached to the Bencoolen Government, at the head of which was Sir Stamford Raffles, whose share in the founding of Singapore is well known. This consolidation of our settlements to the eastward was the consequence, and partly the object, of giving up Bencoolen to the Dutch in exchange for Malacca. In July, 1830, the three settlements of Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore ceased to form a separate government, being made subordinate to that of Bengal. Each was placed under a deputy resident, with an assistant subject to the general control of a commissioner

or resident for the Straits, to which office the ex-governor, Mr. Fullerton, was appointed. He did not long retain the reins of this dependent form of government, being succeeded in 1831 by the deputy-resident at Pinang, Mr. Ibbetson. The titles of governor and resident councillor, among other things abolished by Lord Bentinck's sweeping measures in 1830, were shortly afterwards nominally restored, it being found, that the charter of 1807 was so worded that the King's Court of Judicature in the Straits could not be held in consequence of the non-attendance of these officers. Mr. Murchison succeeded Mr. Ibbetson in June, 1835; and Mr. Bonham, Mr. Murchison on the 25th December, 1836.

The administration now consists of a governor, who exerts a general sway, under the supreme authority in Bengal, over the three settlements; three local residents (one at each settlement); with one assistant resident at Singapore, and two for Pinang and province Wellesley; there is a superintendent for Naning, in addition to an assistant-resident at Malacca. There is also the recorder, whose salary is sicca rupees 37,890 per annum. The salary of the governor of the Straits is 36,000 rupees per annum. His salary and that of the recorder are drawn from the revenues of the three settlements, which contribute equally to make up

the amount of both. The salaries of the residents and of their subordinates will be found under the heads of their respective settlements.

The population of the Straits is of a mixed character. Malays and Chinese compose the greatest proportion, the former more than one-half, the latter about one-sixth, of the whole; settlers from continental India rank next in number; the remaining fraction is made up of Europeans in the employment of government, merchants and their descendants, Siamese, Caffres, Javans, Burmese, Bugis, and Balinese, and a few Arabs, Jews, and Armenians. The total in 1832 amounted to 140,386 souls. In 1836 it increased to 153,230. Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore are penal settlements to continental India; the number accordingly of convicts is very considerable. In a commercial and agricultural point of view, the Chinese, and the natives from India, (Chuliahs and Klings,) are by far the most useful class; they also excel in handicrafts. The Chuliahs and Klings comprehend the traders and settlers, both Mussulmans and Hindus, from the Coromandel coast. These names have been given to them by the Malays from the earliest times of the ancient commercial intercourse subsisting between this part of Asia and India. Kling is a corruption from Teling or Telinga. — Pulicat, Nagore, Negapatam, and

Porto Novo are the ports in India chiefly traded with.

The Caffre part of the population consists generally of slaves, or the descendants of slaves, who have been brought by the Hajis and Arabs from the Arabian and Abyssinian coasts. A few Siamese and Burmese have settled at Singapore and Pinang; these, like the Arabs, Bugis, Javans, and Balinese, constitute the most fluctuating part of the population. Armenians and Jews are rare. The Malays will be considered hereafter. The Chinese, it is well known, are emigrants from China. They are widely scattered over the principal islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and the Ultra-Gangetic nations, including Siam, Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Laos, and the Malayan Peninsula, where their number is estimated at nearly a million. In the British settlements in the Straits, their number is not less than 28,854. Some persons have ascribed their emigration to the influence of European protection; but this can hardly be the case, since it is known by the natives to have continued from a very remote period. The early European navigators found colonies of Chinese scattered over Java, Borneo, and other islands. They are also located in states removed beyond the pale of British dominion; in those of Siam,

Borneo, Tringanu, Pohang, and in numberless others.

Wherever money is to be acquired by the peaceful exercise of agriculture, by handicrafts, by the opening of mines of tin, iron, or gold amidst savage hordes and wild forests, there will be found the greedy Chinese. The *auri sacra fames* is with them a ruling passion: the certainty of being subjected to extortion by the native chiefs, the probability of encountering robbery and even death have scarcely any influence in deterring them from the eager pursuit of gain. The cause of emigration is almost invariably pecuniary want or political necessity. The dense population of the Celestial Empire, embraces a large proportion of paupers, who are a burden to the state. To disencumber itself of this burden, the government throws few obstacles in the way of the poorer class of its subjects quitting the country (a practice, however, diametrically opposed to its ancient laws); but takes care to provide for the future increase of its revenue by encouraging, as much as possible, the return to their native country, of all who have enriched themselves with the spoils of "barbarian lands." To this object tends the strict inhibition of the egress of females from the ports of China. Men, who have left wives and children behind, naturally de-

sire to revisit their homes; while the unmarried are induced to return, in order to take unto themselves wives from among the tiny-footed daughters of Han. All classes, too, are imbued by early education with a deep veneration for the ashes of their ancestors, to which the tenets of their religion bind them to pay stated visits. Some few, however, of the many settlers, who live in a state of concubinage with the females of the places in which they are located, and their descendants, remain permanently fixed. Captain Low informs us, that, when Pinang contained only 3000 Chinese, the annual remittance to China, from the proceeds of gambling alone, was estimated at 10,000 Spanish dollars. This systematic drainage from our settlements, should be checked, and, if possible, the greater part of the stream turned to account in the country whence it derives its source. Besides this, large sums from other funds are constantly sent home by the emigrant, who on first quitting China, has little more than the clothes on his back (a blue cotton shirt, trowsers, hat, and a pair of shoes), a pipe, flint and steel, a small stock of rice, tobacco, and a mat for the voyage. Thus lightly equipped, he is taken on board one of the unwieldy junks, that annually roll, like great leviathans, with the monsoon down the coast of China among the islands

of the Archipelago, or sweep along the shores of Tonquin, Cambodia, and Siam. The passage money to the Straits settlements is from 8 to 12 Spanish dollars, a sum usually paid by the person hiring the services of the emigrant on landing. A certain number of labourers are often commissioned from China by some wealthy capitalist, who reimburses himself for the sum laid out on their passage money, food and clothes from the profits of their labour on their first landing. The new comer, if not already a member of one of the numerous fraternities into which the Chinese associate themselves, is soon enrolled; and should he require it, receives an advance, from the common treasury, of a sum adequate to his present wants, to be repaid as soon as he clears off his debt to his employer. This is soon done; and the penniless adventurer, when he can withstand the temptations of opium and gambling, finds himself speedily in easy and even affluent circumstances. The emigrants in the Straits are chiefly from Canton and Fokien, and from Macao. They follow the occupations of agriculturists, pepper and spice planters, shoemakers, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, gunsmiths, carpenters, bakers, or miners. A few, in most instances, natives of Fokien, rise to be merchants, in which capacity they exhibit a strong propensity to speculate

largely—a spirit probably identical with that of gambling so commonly evinced. The Canton emigrants are the best miners and artizans.

The character of the Chinese may be summed up in few words. They are active, industrious, persevering, intelligent, educated sufficiently to read, write, and to use the swampan or reckoning board. They are entirely free from prejudices of caste and superstition, which are grand stumbling blocks to the natives of India. On the other hand, they are selfish, sensual, ardent lovers of money, though not misers; inveterate gamblers, and often addicted to smoking opium. The Chinese will expose himself to all dangers for the sake of gain, though he would not stir a finger to save a drowning comrade. They make bad soldiers, it is said; but the experiment has not, I believe, been yet properly tried under British authority. They are capable of any crime, provided they run no direct personal risk. In small bodies, when well looked after and ruled by the strong hand of power, they form an excellent class of subjects; but where the reins of government are slack, they are apt to turn refractory and rebellious.

The secret fraternities, in which they enrol themselves for mutual protection and support, prove powerful engines for political combinations,

as the Dutch have repeatedly experienced during their long administration in Java and in the Malayan states. In China itself these societies are deemed so dangerous to the government, as to be interdicted under penalty of death. At Pinang, in 1799, they set the administration at defiance, and strong measures were necessary to reduce them to obedience. Even in the present day, the ends of justice are frequently defeated both at Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore, by bribery, false swearing, and sometimes by open violence, owing to combinations of these fraternities formed for the purpose of screening guilty members from detection and punishment. In European settlements they are under the general control of an officer or headman styled "Capitan," who receives a salary from government, and is responsible, in some measure, for the orderly conduct of his countrymen, whose representative and official organ he is. Their interior affairs, disputes, and private interests are arranged by the heads of their respective Kongsis or fraternities.

The wages of the three following classes for ordinary labour, will afford some idea of their relative industry and usefulness. A Chinese gets from 4 to 6 Spanish dollars a month; a Kling from 3 to $4\frac{1}{2}$; and a Malay from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$. The

Panghulu, or headman, should have at least from 5 to 7 dollars. A Chinese carpenter will earn about 15 dollars a month; a Kling 8, and a Malay only 5. Malay women and children, employed in weeding, get from 3 to 8 cents. per diem.

By the treaty between Great Britain and Holland, done at London, March 17th, 1824, all English settlements on Sumatra, were ceded to Holland from the 1st of March, 1825, in lieu of the Dutch establishments on the continent of India, and the city of Malacca on the Malay Peninsula. It was at the same time stipulated, that no British settlement should be formed in future on the island of Sumatra, nor any treaty concluded, by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein; that no establishment should be made on the Carimon islands, or on the islands of Battam, Bintan, Lingin, or any of the other islands south of the Straits of Singapore; and that, no treaty should be entered into, by British authority, with the chiefs of those islands. His Britannic Majesty also withdrew the objections, which had been made, to the occupation of the island of Billiton and its dependencies by the agents of the Netherlands government. The King of Holland, on his part, agreed to withdraw the objections, which had been made,

to the occupation of the island of Singapore by the subjects of His Britannic Majesty; and engaged for himself and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein. The officers and agents in the East, of both governments, were forbidden to form any new settlements on any of the islands in the Eastern seas, without previous authority from their respective governments in Europe.

With regard to commerce, the old Dutch system of stipulated and exclusive deliveries was partly abolished, and trade on equal terms guaranteed with all the native powers in the Eastern seas, excepting the Molucca islands, of whose valuable produce and traffic in spices the Dutch still retain the monopoly.

This treaty annuls all former ones; and, with respect to that concluded in 1819 with Achin, the British plenipotentiaries undertook that it should be modified as soon as possible into a simple arrangement for the hospitable reception of British vessels and subjects in the port of Achin. As, however, some provisions of the treaty communicated to the Netherlands' plenipotentiaries were judged to be conducive to the general interests of Europeans established in the Eastern seas, it was

presumed, that the Netherlands Government would take measures for securing the benefit of those provisions; and the British plenipotentiaries contented themselves with expressing their confidence, that no proceedings hostile to the king of Achin would be attempted by the new proprietors of Fort Marlborough.

On glancing the eye over a map of the Indian Archipelago, it will at once be perceived, that the comprehensive little sentence, "Islands south of the Straits of Singapore," politically shuts us out from the richest part of Borneo, the tin mines of Banca, the islands of Billiton, Madura, Bali, Bombah, Sumbawa, Flores, and nearly the whole of the Celebes, in addition to the loss of Achin and the rest of Sumatra; leaving us only Singapore, Malacca, and a few decayed factories on the continent of India. The Dutch still retain Java, (the revenue of which Sir S. Raffles raised to nearly four millions sterling,) and the Spice Islands: and until the odious monopoly of the very valuable produce of these islands be abolished, free trade can scarcely be expected to exist in the Archipelago. A gross infringement indeed of the principles of free trade laid down in the treaty, was committed by the Dutch in 1837, (for an account of which see Chapter on Singapore.)

At the time of entering upon this treaty with the Dutch, Singapore was already established and in our possession. To this valuable settlement, therefore, the Dutch had no ground of claim whatever; although, the concession of what was never theirs, is ostentatiously pointed at in the treaty, as a set off against the abandonment of our claims in respect to Billiton. In the exchange of Malacca for Bencoolen, nothing probably was gained by either nation; though both these settlements, under proper management, might at least be made to pay themselves. In the political transfer of the Malayan Peninsula for Banca and Sumatra, (an island whose superficial area is computed at 130,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 3,000,000 souls,) the Dutch were great gainers. The Island of Banca ceded to them, with an area of about 46,000 square miles, and a population of 370,000 souls, alone produces more tin than the aggregate of all the mines of the Peninsula. The produce of Banca in tin, is estimated at from 35,000 to 40,000 piculs annually; and that of Sumatra in gold dust, at double this amount. Borneo annually exports gold dust to the estimated value of half a million sterling: while, on the other hand, half the population of the Malay peninsula, is dependent on Sumatra and Java for rice; both of which

islands, after supplying the wants of their own population, export a considerable surplus of this staple necessary of life. The superiority also of Sumatra over the peninsula in the produce of spices, betel-nut, coffee, camphor, &c., is universally acknowledged. The only advantages, in fine, obtained by England from this impolitic treaty, are the greater consolidation of her possessions in India, and more complete command of a strait which forms the direct passage to China.

Our relations with the bordering kingdom of Siam, as far as they affect the Malay powers of the peninsula, will be treated of in my account of the several states. By the treaty concluded with Major Burney, we are mutually bound not to molest each other in person, goods, or territory. Should any place or country, subject to either party, offend the other, it shall not be attacked before the matter is reported to, and investigated by the state to which the offending country is subject. Forces and fleets may not be assembled by either side in vicinity of the possessions of the other, without cause being declared.

Freedom of commerce with each other is guaranteed conformably to the customs and duties of the place or country on either side, except as regards the importation of opium and the expor-

tation of salt, both of which are prohibited, and the article, on discovery of an infringement of this law, ordered to be destroyed. The selling also of fire-arms and ammunition is forbidden, except to government. The following are the duties to which a vessel is subject at Bankok in Siam, determined according to the breadth of the vessel:—

On import cargoes, 1700 ticals for each Siamese fathom, or 28 inches of breadth. Should a vessel bring no import cargo, a duty of 1500 ticals only will be levied per Siamese fathom.

Vessels must anchor off the bar of the river, take a pilot, and again anchor below the Chokey. The guns and ammunition are to be taken out and deposited at Paknam: they are then permitted to pass up to Bankok, where they are measured, and an account of the cargo taken previously to sale.

Our relations with America, touching the Straits, are simply commercial. Before 1836, the port of Singapore, by an oversight, remained closed against American vessels, agreeably to the Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and the United States, signed at London in July, 1815, which restricts the American privilege of trade to the settlements specified therein, namely, to Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Prince of Wales' Island—Malacca and Singapore were not then included, for good and sufficient reasons;—

the former of these settlements was about to be given up to the Dutch, and the latter was not established until 1818. The oversight, therefore, consisted in omitting to include them in the Convention, when they came subsequently into our occupation. Singapore rose quickly into importance; and American vessels, touching at its ports, continued to trade there without interruption, until the seizure in 1825 of an American trader (the Governor Endicott), by the Commander of his H. M. ship Larne, who acted upon the absence just mentioned, of the name of Singapore, from the Convention. This had the effect of keeping American shipping from the port, though an inconvenient and clandestine sort of traffic was still maintained.

The trade of the Americans with the Straits is now regulated by the provisions of this Convention. They are therein restricted from conveying goods from any of the ports, at which they are permitted to trade, to any country or place whatsoever, except the United States of America; the citizens of which are allowed to carry on trade between the Settlements and the United States in all articles of which the importation and exportation shall not be entirely prohibited; provided only, that it shall not be lawful for them, in time of war between the British Government and any

state or power whatever, to export from the territories of the British without the special permission of the British Government, any military or naval stores, or rice. In 1833, the Americans concluded a treaty with Siam, in which, commerce with all its ports is permitted, barring the importation of opium and the exportation of rice. The Americans are to pay, in lieu of all duties, a measurement charge of 1700 ticals for one Siamese fathom of merchandise; for the same measure of specie 1500 ticals; the measurement to be made from side to side, in the middle of the vessel's length, and, if a single-decked vessel, on such single deck; if otherwise, on the lower deck.

The trade of the Archipelago, with the exception of the Dutch monopoly in spices, &c. has, for many years, been carried on, in the first instance by the native vessels of the Bugis, Malays, Siamese, and other maritime nations: which, sailing about from island to island, collect their varied produce, and accumulate it in a few large general depôts, or marts; whence afterwards it is readily diffused over a great portion of the globe, chiefly by the ships of Europe and America. These marts were, in early times, Malacca, Achin, Bantam, and Macassar. But since the preponderance of European influence, and the consequent decay

of Malayan power, Batavia, Singapore, and Pinang, have superseded them.

The Straits settlements, as at present constituted, afford convenient entrepôts for the produce of Continental India, the Malay Peninsula, the Indian Archipelago, China, Cochin China, and Siam; which meets with a ready exchange for the manufactures of Europe (principally those of Great Britain, France, Holland, and Denmark), and for the specie of America. They withhold the monopoly of the valuable trade of the Eastern Archipelago from the grasp of our pushing neighbours, the Dutch; who, not content with establishments on all the principal and most fertile of its islands, with the full possession of Java and the Moluccas, and with the exclusive enjoyment of the Japan trade, are now aiming at the entire subjugation of that prolific and extensive island, Sumatra. The liberal policy, too, of the British Government, by affording encouragement to a spirit of commercial enterprise among the native merchants, excites a laudable competition; which will assuredly have the effect of developing many of the still untried resources of the East. The possession of the Straits of Malacca secures to Great Britain one of the two most important passes to China, and affords excellent places for refitment and refreshment to vessels engaged in

the China and other trades, as well as to H. M.'s ships serving on the East India station. In the event, indeed, of a rupture with the Chinese, and the removal of our establishments from Canton and Macao, these settlements, particularly Singapore, will prove invaluable.

The imports are principally from Great Britain, Calcutta, and Java, and the exports to Great Britain and to China. Although the trade has suffered latterly from the temporary abolition of the Mint at Madras, where the merchants' returns from the Eastward were chiefly made in bullion, afterwards converted at that mint into currency, at the small charge of two per cent. (the charges at the Calcutta Mint amounting to about 10 per cent), it appears to be progressively thriving.

Further details concerning the commerce of the Straits will be found in the account of each settlement.

The currency in which the merchants generally calculate commercial transactions is the Spanish dollar divided into cents. Its value varies from 100 to 120 pice. There are silver half-dollars; Company's rupees, with their subdivisions of half and quarter rupees, fanams, double and single annas, are in considerable circulation. Guilders and half-guilders, and other Dutch coins, are disappearing. The most current copper coins are

the cent, the half and quarter cent, the doit, the wang, the wang bhara, and Indian pice.

The weights in use for most of the heavy articles of commerce (excepting salt and rice, which are sold by measure), are the tael, catty, and picul, which have been borrowed from the Chinese, to whom the introduction of weights among the Malays is to be ascribed. Daching, the name of the steel-yard used for this process, is decidedly of Chinese origin.

The tael is equal to 23 drs. avoirdupois, 16 taels make 1 catty = 1⅓ lbs. 100 cattys make 1 picul = 133⅓ lbs avoirdupois, and 3 piculs constitute 1 bhara (a term supposed to be of Arabic extraction), which is often used in the weighing of tin. There is a difference, essential for the trader to know, in the relative weights of the Chinese and Malay catty. The former, in common use, weighs 23 Spanish dollars, and the latter 24. The gold, or troy weight of the Malays, in most general use on the Peninsula, is as follows. It varies, however, at different places.

GOLD WEIGHT.

2 small saga	=	1 large saga.
2 large saga.....	=	1 moiam or mas.
18 mas, or 4 kupongs...	=	1 bunkal or tael.
20 bunkals	=	1 catty.

The saga is a small scarlet pea with a black spot, of the abrus maculatus, used also by Indian goldsmiths. The weight of the bunkal is supposed to be equivalent to that of the two Spanish dollars, or about 832 grains troy. The bunkal of Malacca, it is said, weighs 10 sagas. The bunkal and catty are the weights used in commerce. It is necessary to note, that the gold-dust catty should weigh nearly double that by which ordinary articles are weighed; the former ought to weigh 40 dollars, while the latter only weighs 23. The catty, by which gold and silver thread is sold, weighs 36 dollars. Java tobacco is sold by the corge of 40 baskets. Indian piece-goods, Malay sarongs and sarendongs, by the corge of 20 pieces.

Salt, and Straits, Java and Siamese rice, &c. are sold by measure, generally by that of the coyan, which contains about 40 piculs in weight of rice, and in measure about 800 gallons.

TABLE OF DRY AND LIQUID MEASURE.

4 kupongs.....	=	1 chupah.
4 chupahs.....	=	1 gantang, or kulah.
16 gantangs	=	1 nalih.
10 nalihs.....	=	1 koonchah.
5 koonchas, or 800 gantangs	=	1 coyan.

The burthen of Malayan prahus is estimated

by coyans. The terms chupah and kulah have their origin in the rude cocoa-nut shell, and hollow bamboo, used often to this day by the Malays for measuring Bengal rice. Wheat and dholl are sold by the bag, containing two maunds, equal to about 20 gantangs.

Land is measured by square orlongs, each of which is equivalent to rather more than 1¼ acre, that is, to 20 jumbas square, each jumba being equal to 12 feet square.

Length, breadth, depth and height, are commonly and naturally reckoned by the extent of the members of the human body, viz. the jari, the finger's breadth or inch; the tampak or hand's breadth; the jangkal or span, the kaki or foot; the hasta, fore arm, or cubit; and the deppa or fathom, which is the measure of a man's arms extended.

Previously to 1807 the judicial powers were vested solely in the local government, and were exercised by it with much satisfaction, both to the European and Native population, as well as with economy to the state. It was, however, deemed requisite to establish a king's court of judicature, with all its expensive paraphernalia. Accordingly on the 5th of September, 1807, the first session of Oyer and Terminer, and general gaol delivery for the island of Pinang and its dependencies, was

opened, at the court house in George's Town, before the Honourable Sir Edmund Stanley Kt., Recorder, and his associates, the members of government, under a charter, (to use Sir Edmund's words,) "armed with powers the most extensive and summary, for the administration of civil and criminal justice, that the wisdom of man could devise." It is not my object to enter at length into the nature of this charter; it will be sufficient to say, that by it English law, modified with a view of suiting it to the state of society, and to the wants of the various population of the Straits, became the rule of justice.

At present the administrators of the law are the governor of the Straits for the time being, a recorder appointed by the king, and the resident councillor of the settlement, where the court happens to be held. Two of the above-mentioned functionaries must sit, otherwise the court cannot be held. The court makes the circuit of the three settlements twice every year: intermediate sessions sometimes take place under the governor and resident councillor at Singapore, so as to give four gaol deliveries in the course of the year. The court has no power to hear or try any indictment against the governor, the councillors, or the recorder, not being for treason or felony; nor has it admiralty jurisdiction. Pirates, caught in the

Straits, are on this account obliged to be transmitted, at great expense and loss of time, either to Madras or to Calcutta for trial; and the ends of justice, in consequence, have more than once been frustrated. But, as this subject has lately been made matter of petition by the principal merchants and inhabitants to the King in Council, and, as there is every reason to expect that an extension of jurisdiction to the Straits court will be granted, I shall refrain from saying more on the subject.*

There still exist, however, two serious objections to this court as at present constituted; viz. the inadequate adaptation of English law to the state of society on which it has been grafted, and its disproportionate expense to the state. The native population of the Straits is a medley, composed of nearly half the varieties scattered over Asia, (though principally of Malays, Chinese, settlers from Continental India, and their descendants), with wants but few and simple. Among such a population as this, English law, that has expanded progressively with the numerous exigencies of a highly artificial state of society, loaded with costly bulwarks of forms, and clogged with tedious processes, has been prematurely introduced, tending rather to embarrass than to

* Admiralty jurisdiction has since been extended in 1837.

advance the ends proposed by natural justice, good government, and common sense. Not only its inefficacy to reach the guilty, but its absolute tendency to oppress the poor, and to further the criminal views of the wealthy litigant, are glaringly obvious to every unbiassed observer. Many natives, particularly Malays, will suffer much injury and loss, rather than apply to this court: nor is it, I have reason to believe, much admired by the European community itself; and it would be still less so, had the public, agreeably to the charter, to pay its expenses which are now defrayed by the government.

The fees accruing to the court amounted, in 1835-6, to sicca rupees 21,126, and its expenses to the enormous sum of sicca rupees 107,466. This is (to use the words of Sir T. Munro) very like applying the expensive and complicated machinery of an Arnold's chronometer to purposes, for which that of a common smoke-jack would answer much better, and at less cost. The remedy for these evils is obvious and easy; viz. a revision of the law and better adaptation of it to the manners, habits, and exigencies of the population. Justice thus simplified, and unfettered by redundant technicalities, would need no expensive offices to prop it up. The laws might then safely be administered by the residents at each station,

with a power of appeal to the Governor, who ought to have the option of referring particular cases to the opinion and decision of the judges in Bengal. The necessity for such a reference would doubtless be rare.

The principal office, and depository for the records of the court, is at Pinang under the Registrar. The cost of the court-house and Recorder's establishment amounted, in 1835-6, to sicca rupees 36,792; there are subordinate establishments besides at Malacca and Singapore, whose annual expenses amount together to sicca rupees 20,784; the Recorder's salary, as beforementioned, is sicca rupees 37,890; the average freight of vessels engaged in conveying the court on circuit amounts to sicca rupees 10,000; and extra allowances to clerks and private servants, proceeding on circuit, to 2000 rupees more; making altogether (the amount of fees being deducted) a net annual charge to the state of sicca rupees 86,340.

There are magistrates at each settlement, who hold regular quarter sessions, to try and decide on all inferior offences against the public peace and good order; they have power to levy assessments for the repair of the roads, bridges, and other public works; and also to hold courts of requests, limited to cases not exceeding more than thirty-

two Spanish dollars. There are salaried coroners at Pinang and Singapore; and deputy-sheriffs, with their establishments, for each of the three settlements; at the moderate annual cost of sicca rupees 14,520. A native police with European superintendents exists. From these subordinate courts, appeals may be made to the King's Court of Judicature, and thence to the King in Council.

STRAITS' COURT ESTABLISHMENT, FOR 1835-6.

(PER MENSEM, IN SICCA RUPEES.)

PINANG.		SINGAPORE.		MALACCA.		
1 Clerk ..... 300 1 Jemadar .... 22 2 Sontaburdars 24 2 Peons 20	366	None.		None.		
REGISTRAR'S ESTABLISHMENT.						
1 Registrar & Clerk of the Crown 1400 1 Clerk..... 500 1 Ditto..... 300 1 Ditto..... 100	2300	1 Clerk ..... 500 1 Ditto 200	700	1 Clerk 500		500
COURT HOUSE ESTABLISHMENT.						
1 Head Chuliah Interpreter .. 100 1 Ditto Hindustanee & Malay Interpreter .. 100 1 Chuliah Interpreter & Writer..... 20 1 Chinese Interpreter and Writer ..... 60 1 Mussulman Swearer .... 10 1 Hindu, ditto 10 1 Crier ..... 50 1 Shroff..... 20 3 Peons..... 30	400	1 Chief Interpreter ..... 150 1 Chuliah Interpreter and Writer ..... 20 1 Chinese Interpreter, Writer and Swearer 50 1 Shroff & Malay Writer .. 20 1 Bugis Interpreter ..... 20 1 Mussulman Swearer .... 12 1 Hindu Swearer..... 12 3 Peons..... 30	314	1 Head Interpreter ..... 100 1 Chuliah Interpreter and Writer..... 20 1 Chinese Interpreter, Writer & Swearer 48 1 Malay Writer and Shroff 20 1 Hindu Swearer..... 10 2 Peons..... 20		218
Total Sicca Rupees ..	3066		1014			718 0 0
						1,014 0 0
						3,066 0 0
Recorder's Monthly Salary						3,157 8 0
Average expenses monthly in conveying Court on Circuit						1000 0 0
Total monthly expense, Sicca Rupees.....						8955 8 0

	Sicca Rupees.
The Fees collected at Pinang in 1835-6, amounted to	5,335
Ditto ditto Malacca ditto ditto	1,325
Ditto ditto Singapore ditto ditto	14,466
Total	21,126

THE MONTHLY SALARIES OF THE CORONERS' AND SHERIFFS' ESTABLISHMENTS, ARE AS FOLLOWS.

PINANG.			SINGAPORE.			MALACCA.		
Coroner's Establishment.	Sic. Rps.			Sic. Rps.				
1 Coroner	100		1 Coroner	100		None.		
1 Peon.....	10		1 Peon	10				
		110			110			
Sheriff's Establishment.								
1 Deputy Sheriff	200		1 Dep. Sheriff	200		1 Dep. She.	100	
1 Jailor	100		1 Jailor	60		1 Jailor ..	60	
1 Bailiff	50		1 Bailiff	50		1 Bailiff ..	50	
1 Turnkey	20		1 Turnkey	20		1 Turnkey	20	
2 Peons	20		2 Peons	20		2 Peons ..	20	
		390			350			250
		500			460			250

The present military force serving in the Straits, consists of two regiments of Madras Native Infantry, each about 756 strong, nominally; and two small detachments of Artillery, Native and European, distributed among the three settlements. At Pinang there is a small fort scarcely defensible. Malacca and Singapore are utterly without military fortifications; the walls of the former place were blown up at an immense expense in 1807. Should hostilities with the Dutch break out, either of these places might be surprised and sacked with perfect ease, and the shipping taken and destroyed by the crew of a single man-of-war from the neighbouring Dutch port of Rhio, if advantage were only taken of the night, and of the absence of Her Majesty's ship, which is generally cruising in the Straits.

The expenses of the military establishments in the three settlements, amounted in 1835-6, to sicca rupees 532,315 15. The true strength of the Straits against an European enemy must now of course consist in its naval force. The military are principally useful in preserving its possessions on the main from Siamese and Malay aggression. I shall advert, when speaking of the Naning expeditions (see Chap. V.), to the impolicy of depriving the troops serving in the three settlements, of an officer invested with authority over the whole; an absurdity which has already been productive of defeat, and ruinous expense to government.

The receipts of the three settlements, Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore, amounted in 1835-6, to rupees 515,865, and the disbursements to rupees 635,718; leaving a cost to the state, of rupees 119,853. The disbursements include the net expenses of the Queen's Court of Judicature, but not those of the military and convict establishments. The military charges for 1835-6, were rupees 532,315 15, and those for the convict establishment, rupees 80,637 7 0½. The sources from which the revenue is derived, and the mode of raising it, &c. will be detailed when treating of each settlement separately.

The following is an Abstract of Receipts and Disbursements and Net Charge to the State of the Straits Settlements, not including the expenses of the Military and the Convict Establishment for 1835-6.

	Receipts.	Disburse-ments.	Net Charge to the State.	Net Profit to the State.
Prince of Wales' Island & Province Wellesley	178,930	253,328	74,398	
Singapore	274,178	222,333	....	51,845
Malacca	62,757	160,057	97,300	
	515,865	635,718		

This chapter will be concluded with a few suggestions touching the suppression of piracy, now existing to such an alarming extent, and with some observations upon plans for colonization in the Straits. The more remote causes of piracy are to be eradicated, solely by the adoption of a more enlightened policy towards the native powers; and, it may be added, by the gradual spread of civilization, and diffusion of useful knowledge. Meanwhile, I would suggest, in the first place, the employment of one or more small armed steamers, together with eight or ten large boats of the best possible construction for rapid transit (particularly rowing-boats), manned fully with Europeans, and well armed for both close and distant fight. These boats should also be constructed and rigged, to

resemble, as nearly as possible, the ordinary trading prahus of the Malays.

Secondly, a discreet surveillance over the conduct of the present Tumungong of Johore; who is more than suspected of being the mainspring of the daring system of piracy, which has so long been an opprobrium to the eastern extremity of the Straits. A threat of withdrawing the stipend which he enjoys from the British Government might be useful.

Thirdly. A careful survey of both coasts of the Peninsula, the unexplored rivers, creeks, and islets. This, in addition to other obvious advantages, will afford opportunities for observing the character and pursuits of the natives inhabiting the seashore and banks of rivers, (who are always more or less in league with the pirates,) and for collecting information of piratical haunts, and places of rendezvous.

Fourthly. The suspected Native chiefs should be peremptorily called upon to lend their assistance and to give information, particularly the chiefs of Kemamang, Salangore, Perak, and Kalantan; and they should be taught to consider themselves responsible, in a great measure, for piracies committed off their coasts; and lastly, the co-operation of the Dutch government should be secured.

The prahus used by the Malay pirates are from eight to ten tons in burthen, extremely well

manned, and remarkably fast, particularly with the paddles commonly used. They are generally armed on their bows, centre, and stern with swivels of small calibre but long range. When preparing to attack, strong musket-proof bulwarks of wood, called Apilans, are erected; behind which the crew ensconce themselves, fighting with their long guns, until their prey is disabled, or till the gong sound the signal for boarding. But what they mainly depend upon for safety and success, is their skill in paddling, (Malay pirates scarcely ever attack except during the lull between the land and sea-breeze, or in a calm), the swiftness of their boats, and their knowledge of the intricate channels between the islands or over the bars of the rivers, into which they generally contrive to escape, baffling their pursuers, and often leaving them a-ground on some of the numerous shoals or mud-banks, which their own superior knowledge enables them to avoid.

The prahus of the Sulu and Illanun pirates are much larger and better equipped than those which commonly infest the Straits. The Malay pirates, generally, move and make their attacks in small fleets of from six to twenty prahus. During the months of October, November, December, and January, they will be found cruising up and down the western coast of the Peninsula and the

opposite shore of Sumatra. From June to the end of September they are often to be seen among the islets south of Singapore, and in the creeks and rivers of the Johore coast. February, March, and April are spent in fishing, collecting sea-weed, and preparing for future piratical expeditions. The crews are armed with boarding-spears (some of very great length), krises, Malay hatchets, and swords (the parang and kleywang), muskets, blunderbusses, and a variety of missiles, such as sticks pointed and burnt at the end, stones, &c.

The most noted haunts for pirates on the western coast of the Peninsula (according to information derived from a Malay of Salangore, who had in his youth practised the profession himself), are the Bunting, Aroe, Cocab, Pisang, Dinding, and Sambilang isles, those on the Salangore coast, and the islets between Cape Rachado and the Lingie river, the rivers Mirbowe, Birman Perak, Puteh, Koroo, Muar, Rio Formosa or the Battu Pahat river, and, formerly, the Lingie river, the Straits of Calang and Dryon, Point Romania and its vicinity, and the Carimon isles to the south. On the eastern coast are the creeks and small rivers of Johore up to Pahang; the Kemamang river; those of Tringaun and Kalantan, also the isles of Timoang, Pulo Tingie, Redang and Aor.

In 1835, a plan was communicated to me by the Rev. Mr. Parker, an American missionary, for a colony from America to be located in any eligible situation within the Straits. It would appear, that there are many young men and women in the United States, willing to visit any part of the world, and to concentrate their exertions, with the very laudable object of effectually diffusing among their less favoured brethren the arts and sciences of civilized nations, together with the blessings of Christianity.

Each colony of these philanthropists would comprise from thirty to ninety individuals, or from five to fifteen families: out of fifteen families three to be agriculturists, and the rest carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, shoemakers, cabinet-makers, a surgeon, schoolmaster, and religious pastor: all of unblemished character and morals. They would rely on their own resources, having a certain portion of their interests and of their stock in common; if necessary, a fund would be established from which extraordinary assistance might be occasionally derived, and the value paid back, when convenient, at a future period.

The second plan communicated to me was for a single wealthy individual to settle at any suitable spot, bringing with him tenants of different professions and trades, who might serve to take the

lead in various branches of labour, and in instructing the natives in the several handicrafts necessary for a new establishment. It is supposed, by following this plan, the tenants would, in a few years at most, be able to maintain themselves, and to direct the affairs of their respective departments. A colonization society, to be formed in the mother country, in order to assemble, equip, and send forth the colonies to their destined places of settlement. The object of such colonies also would be, to improve the agriculture, the manufactures, the commerce, the ordinary arts of living, and the moral and intellectual character of the people among whom they settled, and whom they proposed to take eventually under their own superintendence: parcels of land to be allotted them for cultivation; and, when competent, they might be set up as tradesmen and merchants. They are to be encouraged in every way to embrace the Gospel. Such are, summarily, American schemes for colonization in the Straits; and they, independently of other objections, appear to be exceptionable in their very elements; for settlers from America could never be attached to our laws and government, either by the natural ties of country, or by those of common interests. The connexion would be forced and unnatural.

On the other hand, by the colonization of the

subjects of Great Britain, and by their taking root in the country, the foundations of her government would be incalculably strengthened; and there can be no doubt that the most effectual way of communicating to the people of the Straits the inestimable blessings of education and true Christianity, is by introducing them under the immediate auspices of England.

I shall now offer a few hints upon the subject. In the first place, long leases of land should be granted by Government, and adequate protection by means of an efficient police.—2ndly. The new settlers should have means sufficient to defray all expenses of living, hiring of labourers, &c. for the two first years.—3rdly. They should at first, as far as may be practicable and consistent, adopt the manners and customs of the surrounding natives in their mode of life, agriculture, implements of husbandry, &c. subsequently making such gradual alterations as, on thorough and practical conviction, may prove of service.—4thly. The colony should consist of agriculturists, artisans, and mechanics, a spiritual pastor, and a surgeon, under a capitalist of some experience. The first cares of the colonists will be to erect temporary habitations, and to clear and till the ground. The cultivation of rice, culinary and other vegetables, and fruits making quick returns, should be alone

attempted during the infancy of the colony. Spices, which require years and considerable outlay before they yield any profit, ought not, at first, to be attempted; or at least merely for experiment. In this way coffee, gambier, cotton, cocoa-nut, and sago trees, may be planted in small gardens, or campongs adjoining the houses. For the first and second seasons Natives should be partially employed. Their methods of cultivation, times of sowing and reaping, should be carefully attended to, simple and uncouth as they may appear. At first no more ground should be occupied than what is absolutely necessary to produce enough for a year's consumption; it can afterwards be enlarged with the system of cultivation. In hiring native labourers, it must be done through their Panghulus, or headmen, who are, in a great measure, responsible for them, and whose good-will should, in every case, be secured. The new colonists should avoid unnecessary exposure to the sun; but they need not shrink from it altogether; they ought rather to inure themselves to it gradually, until they become, in some measure, acclimatised. This is easily effected with temperance in eating and drinking. Indeed, the effects of climate are not half so prejudicial as a person would be led to imagine from the opinions of writers inimical to European colonization in tropical countries. The language, domestic

manners, and religious prejudices of the surrounding Natives, should be sedulously studied, and nothing done to give unnecessary offence. Above all things, religious conversion should never be touched on; unless the Native come forward voluntarily, and ask for instruction on so vital a subject, as he most assuredly will do, when he has been led to infer the superiority of our religion over his own, by witnessing our great superiority in the arts and sciences, and in moral conduct.

The Natives of the peninsula are well aware of the extensive schemes for their conversion, and manifest much jealousy and sensitiveness on religious points. To prolong this excitement by injudicious eagerness, and by a careless disregard of circumstances, militates grievously against the good cause we are engaged in. The conviction of our moral ascendancy once established, the path to conversion becomes comparatively easy, and may be reasonably looked upon as certain. Education need not be confined to mere reading, writing and accounts. It should embrace the handicrafts most likely to be useful to natives; such as carpenters' work, house and boat building, &c.

With regard to the employment of Malay labourers and wood-cutters by Europeans, the following hints suggested in the interior, may

prove of use. The Malays should invariably be employed under their own Panghulus, and paid daily by them under the eye of their employer, when the day's work is over. Those who bear good characters and have large families, may be indulged with an advance of wages to leave with their wives and children. Every attempt at compulsion to work must be avoided, as Malays are very jealous on this head. If attention be not paid to this, the whole body sometimes abscond, to a man.

By kind and considerate treatment, and a show of confidence in their honour, anything may be done with them. They are always provided with biliongs, (a sort of hatchet,) and hatchets called parangs; and, indeed, seldom require assistance from their employers in the shape of tools, except for the choncole, (a sort of hoe,) which may be procured at Malacca, for about fifty cents. The time for working, agreeably to the custom of the Malays (who are not such early risers as the natives of India,) is from eight in the morning till five in the afternoon, without leaving off for a meal. The wages of a Malayan wood-cutter are generally paid in cash, for which, however, may be occasionally substituted, (if the workmen wish it,) rations of rice or paddy, salt fish, and tobacco. The Malays in the interior of Malacca I found

had no objection to work on Friday, their sabbath; but should a disinclination to this be manifested, it would be advisable not to insist upon it.

From the advantages of soil and climate, I have little doubt that colonies in the Straits, conducted generally on the principles just laid down, would prove highly serviceable to the state, to the individuals immediately concerned, and finally, in its own proper time, to the great cause of Christianity. It is not from the first settlers that we are to expect the full measure of benefits, but from their descendants; much of their success, however, will depend on the foundation laid, morally and physically speaking, by their parents. With regard to location, Pinang offers the greatest temptation, on account of the success with which the cultivation of spices has been there prosecuted; but it is decidedly not so healthy as Malacca and Singapore. At Malacca are many eligible spots both for agriculture and the growing of spices. The mouth of the Lingie river, a broad navigable stream, full of fine fish, and the great channel for the tin trade of the interior, offers superior advantages. A horticultural society has lately been established at Singapore, from whose experiments and reports much is expected. The great drawback to colonization, and to the successful cultivation of the soil, is the present code of land regula-

tions; which, however, are now (1837) undergoing revision: and a commissioner (I understand) has been sent down by the supreme government, charged, amongst other duties, with the very important one of amending this code.

CHAPTER II.

PINANG.—Geographical Position. — Physical Aspect.—Geology.—Government.—Population.—Revenue.— Trade. — Cultivation of Spices.—Produce.—Leases of Land.—Abstract of Imports and Exports.—Education among the Natives.—Propaganda Mission College.—Military Strength.

PRINCE of Wales' Island, or Pulo Pinang, the Areca Isle, as it is called by the natives, lies between 5° 14′ and 5° 29′ north latitude; its N.E. point being in 100° 25′ east longitude, off the west coast of the Peninsula, opposite to the principality of Quedah. It is upwards of fifteen miles long, and between eight and twelve broad, and contains an area of about 160 square miles, of which a little more than one-fifth is cultivated.

I am greatly indebted to Dr. Ward's and Captain Low's valuable publications for many of the following data regarding the physical aspect and geology of Pinang, and of Province Wellesley.

The shape of the island is an irregular quadrangle, diminishing in breadth to the south. The northern part is mountainous: the whole of the east side is a level tract, nearly three miles in

London, Published by John Murray, Albemarle Street 1839.

J & C. Walker, Litho.

1st Geological Section
OF
PULO PENANG
and the Neighbouring Islands from Pt. Rimau to Pt. Boonting, distance 35 Miles

S → N

Granite
Greywacke
Greywacke Slate
Red Argill Rock

Blue Argill Schist
Limestone
Marble
Alluvial

2nd Section from Pt. Kundit to Battoo Kawang, W. to E. distance 14 Miles.

W → E

Walker. Lithe

London. Published by John Murray, Albemarle Street, 1839.

breadth, called the Valley, on which is situated the capital, George Town, and the Fort, &c.* Through the centre of the island, from north-east to south-west, runs a range of jungly hills, declining in height as it approaches the south-western extremity; on both sides of which, level plains extend to the coasts on the east and west. These plains, like the hills, where cultivation does not interfere, are covered with thick forests; a belt of cocoa-nut trees fringes the shore, and scattered over the island, in various groups, appear groves of the tall and graceful Areca, or Pinang, whence the island derives its name. There is no river of any magnitude; two or three rivulets, of excellent

* The principal edifices in George Town are a handsome church, an Armenian chapel, two Roman Catholic chapels, the Court House, Gaol, the Public School, the Poor House, the Government Offices, and the Civil and Military Hospitals. The town contains a few European shops, and a number kept by respectable Chinese tradesmen. It lies at the eastern entrance of the valley, and consists of a large street, intersected by smaller ones. The cantonment for the native troops is about two miles and a half from the fort. According to Captain Low, in 1808, a Committee valued the property, situated within a sweep of 250 yards from the fort (which includes a portion only, although a valuable one, of the town) at 534,750 Spanish dollars. The church was not then built. At the estimated rental of the whole town, and at ten years' purchase, exclusively of the church and other public buildings, the value of *all* may be rated at 799,000 Spanish dollars. The whole landed property and houses lying beyond the Bound-ditch may, at eight years' purchase only, be valued at not less than 520,000 Spanish dollars. But when the spice plantations come into bearing, the value of this last will be greatly enhanced.

water, descend from the hills into the sea. A tolerable road passes from one end of the island to the other, and is connected with a number of cross roads. The east side of the island is low and swampy, and well adapted for wet rice cultivation. The southern and western valleys are drier, and laid out in pepper and spice plantations. Many of the hills have been cleared and planted with nutmegs and cloves; elegant country houses adorn their summits. The highest elevation of their range is 2574 feet above the level of the sea. Two-thirds of the whole island are computed to be level or of gentle inclination. Vegetation, like that on most of the beautiful islets that stud these tranquil seas, is most luxuriant: wooded to the water's edge, they appear so many immense verdant bushes growing out of the ocean. The climate, though not so fine as that of Malacca, is delightful; refreshing showers fall at short intervals throughout the year, and morning and evening a never-failing breeze dispenses every where the blessings of renewed health and vigour.

The thermometer on the plain ranges between 76° and 90° Fahrenheit. On the higher hills from 64° to 76°. The island, with the exception of a few notorious fever spots, is considered very healthy. The climate of the high lands is said to resemble that of Funchal.

The geological formation of Pinang, like that of the adjoining peninsula, is primitive. The more prominent features have not generally that peaked appearance so characteristic of a granitic structure. Some of the hills indeed have the dome-shaped outline of those of Southern India. They are all, however, granitic, of various texture and colour, traversed by veins of quartz and quartz rock. The prevailing colour is grey. Near the coast are a few hills of laterite.

The subsoil of the hills is formed by the decomposition of the rock below, and covered with a thin vegetable mould, about six or twelve inches thick. It is of a light red colour and clayey consistence, and varies from one to eight feet in depth. The east and south-west plains are entirely of this alluvial character, viz. detritus washed down from the mountains, together with the decomposition of subjacent granite beds. Dr. Ward observes, that, at first sight of the east plain particularly, which juts out in a triangular form into the narrow strait between the island and the Quedah coast, and on which are built George Town, the Fort, the various public buildings, and the habitations of the English residents, the geologist is impressed with the idea that the sea must have at one time covered it, and washed the base of the mountains. This opinion is confirmed by the phenomena ob-

servable on the opposite shore of Quedah, where Captain Low has traced the successive deposits of alluvial matter, for several miles inland, and the gradual retirement of the ocean, indicated by ridges running parallel to the present line of coast.

The granite formation, as in the Peninsula, is stanniferous. Tin ore (stream) has been discovered at the base of the hills, at Amie's-mills and at Battu Feringhi; as also beds of a whitish clay, probably decomposed felspar. The geological structure of the islets in the vicinity of Pinang, according to Dr. Ward, is either granite or limestone of a bluish grey colour, resting on an argillaceous rock, or schist. No organic remains or fossils have ever been found on these islands.

Pinang has, for a succession of ages, been almost entirely covered with dense forest, producing timber well adapted for ship-building, and for masts of vessels. Among the forest trees are the murbowe (Metrosideros Amboinensis R.) the meranti, the poon, the red poon, the ranghas, the wood-oil tree, the bunga buratta (Connarus ferrugineus of Jack.), and the dammer-laut. There are a vast number of parasitical plants, among which is to be found the *urceola elastica* of Roxburgh, or the American caoutchouc, first discovered by Mr. Howison. It is generally about two or three inches in diameter, with a cracked

ash-coloured bark. According to Roxburgh, from wounds made in the bark of this plant, there oozes a milky fluid, which, on exposure to the open air, is separated into an elastic coagulum and watery liquid, apparently of no use after the separation takes place. This coagulum is, at first, of a light brown colour, but darkens by exposure to the air; it not only resembles the American caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, but possesses similar properties. Among the shrubs are the *chionotria rigida*, and the *pteruandra cærulescens* of Jack. The cypress-tree, a species of fir resembling the larch, and some superb species of arborescent ferns, grow on the more elevated parts of the island; while, on the sides of the mountains, a variety of beautiful ferns and mosses are to be gathered. In the valley grow various fruit-trees, such as the mangostin, the lime, the orange, the guava, the rambotan, the durian, the langseh, the jack, the tampuni, the rambai, the plantain, and the pine-apple. Sugar-cane is produced in abundance. The tea-plant is said to grow wild. Nutmegs, cloves, caya-putih, pimento, are among the exotics. Pepper, cocoa-nuts, betel-nut, betel-leaf, coffee, rice, cotton, and ginger, thrive well.

Tin ore, as before stated, has been found on the island.

The history of the establishment and govern-

ment of Pinang, has already been touched upon. Mr. Salmond is the present resident councillor, and Mr. William Balhetchet deputy resident. Captain Low, of the Madras establishment, has charge of Province Wellesley. Previous to the occupation of the islands by the British in 1786, it would appear from the ancient burial places, and other indications found thereon, to have been formerly a place of considerable resort; though, when taken possession of, there were only a few Malay fishermen living in huts on the sea-coast. It had been from time immemorial, under the government of the Malay sovereigns of Quedah.

The population in 1801, amounted to 10,310; in 1805, to 14,000; in 1822, including Province Wellesley, to 51,207; in 1826, to 55,116; in 1828, to 60,551; and in 1833, to 86,275. The following census (for 1833), will give an idea of the mixed nature of the population of Pinang.

CENSUS OF THE POPULATION OF PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND, AND THE PLACES SUBORDINATE AND ANNEXED THERTO.

Prince of Wales' Island, 31*st Dec.* 1833.

Europeans and their descendants	789
Armenians	21
Malays	16,435

Achinese	347
Battahs	561
Chinese	8,751
Chuliahs	7,886
Bengalese	1,322
Siamese and Burmese	648
Arabs	142
Parsees	51
Native Christians	708
Caffres	180
Native Military and followers	678
Convicts, including local prisoners	1,263
Average number of Patients, in the Chinese Poor House, Lunatic Asylum, and Native Pauper Hospital	140
Itinerants supposed here about this season	400
	40,322

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

Malays	41,702
Chinese	2,259
Chuliahs	510
Siamese	405
Bengalese	577
Fluctuating	500
	45,953
	40,322
Total	86,275

Malays and Chinese, it will be observed, are by far the most numerous classes. In 1835-6, the population of the island amounted to 38,454, and that of Province Wellesley, to 47,555, giving a total of 86,009 souls. The following is an abstract of the various censuses taken since 1830.

	PINANG.	PROV. WELLESLEY.
1830–1	.....	26,000
1831–2	35,260	41,900
1832–3	.....	45,355
1833–4	40,322	45,953
1834–5	.....	46,800
1835–6	38,454	47,555

The revenue of Pinang is derived from lands, customs, licences, and the sale of the government monopolies: viz. those of opium, spirits, pork, betel-leaf, and the market. The gambling farms were a source of considerable revenue, but have been for some time past (in 1810) put down by the Court of Judicature; and thus a considerable loss caused to the state. It is much to be questioned, whether morality even gains by this attempt at suppression. Gambling goes on in private to a greater excess than it did when openly permitted (so true is human nature still to the adage, "Nitimur in vetitum semper cupimusque ne-

gatum"); and secret associations are formed, particularly among the Chinese, from the combinations of which spring many of those daring outrages and robberies that disgrace our settlements. The efforts of the police are either set openly at defiance, or rendered null by bribery; and as to the total suppression of gambling, that is about as impossible under the present system as it would be to sweep it away from the streets and squares of our own metropolis. Heavy taxation proportioned to the evil, would be the slow though sure means of crushing it. At all events, the policy which encourages and monopolises the sale of that most debasing and pernicious drug, opium, might consistently enough, impose a tax upon gambling, native shrines, &c., even were there any foundation for the objection generally urged against such imposts, that, they by recognizing, apparently legalize the practices subject to them; and that the revenue raised from such sources is, in spite of Vespasian's sarcasm, iniquitous. But the objection is groundless, for a heavy tax is virtually a mulct or fine, and as such, as justly available to the coffers of the state, as fines for assaults or other misdemeanours.

The revenue of Prince of Wales' Island and Province Wellesley amounted, in 1835–6, to sicca rupees 178,930–1, and the disbursements, not in-

cluding the expenses of the military and the convict establishment, to 253,328, leaving a net charge to the state of sicca rupees, 74,398.

The trade of Pinang is one chiefly of transit, carried on with Great Britain, China, Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Java, Siam, Cochin China, Achin, Telleswari, Siac, Quedah, Perak; on the Peninsula, the Tenasserim Coast, Borneo, Celebes, and other islands of the Indian Archipelago. A considerable trade in cotton cloths is kept up by the Chuliahs with the Coromandel Coast. The staple products of the island are cloves, nutmegs, pepper, and mace. The average amount of spices annually raised has been computed as follows:—

				SPANISH DOL.
Nutmegs	400	piculs,	valued at...	12,000
Mace ...	130	ditto	ditto	18,200
Cloves...	200	ditto	ditto	4,000
Pepper...	16,000	ditto	ditto	80,000
				114,200

A picul is equal to 133⅓lbs avoirdupois.

The value of nutmegs, mace, and cloves, exported in the years 1836–7, amounted to sicca rupees, 156,846.

The English government, in order to encourage

British planters, has fixed the duty on nutmegs imported into Great Britain from her own settlements, at 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb., and from other settlements at 3*s.* 6*d.* The duty on cloves imported from British settlements is 2*s.*, and from foreign settlements 3*s.* Even this remission of tax in favour of her colonies, is not sufficient to enable the British planter to compete successfully with the Dutch, who enjoy the monopoly of the spices to the eastward. The restrictions on the lease of land in the Straits should be modified, and the duty should be taken off, or as far as practicable diminished, on those spices *alone* which are bonâ fide, the produce of British settlements. It may be here stated, on the authority of Captain Low, that Batavian merchants have lately, whether legally or otherwise does not yet appear, been in the habit of conveying the spices of the Moluccas to Singapore and Malacca, from which places they are shipped for England and Bengal, and consequently *pass free from the extra duty* of one shilling per pound, imposed on spices of other than British colonies. This defeats the object of the boon from the British government to the Pinang spice cultivators, and is a subject that should call forth the immediate and serious attention of government. Pinang itself, it is said, produces nutmegs nearly sufficient for the consump-

tion of Great Britain. Other causes exist that militate against our rivalling the Dutch in this article of commerce, among which may be mentioned the uncertain term of residence of the monied men in the settlements—the want of capital among the permanent colonists—and the expensive mode of cultivation required:* the

* The mode of culture adopted in the different plantations is nearly the same. The beds of the trees are kept free from grass and noxious weeds by the hoe, and the plough is occasionally run along the interjacent spaces for the purpose of eradicating the lallang (Andropogon caricosum) which proves greatly obstructive to the operations of agriculture. The trees are generally manured with cow-dung and burnt earth once a year, in the rainy season, but the preparation of suitable composts and their mode of application, are but imperfectly understood. The pruning knife is too sparingly used: very few of the planters lop off the lower verticils of the nutmeg-trees, or thin them of the unproductive and straggling branches.

The site of a plantation is an object of primary importance, and doubtless the alluvial grounds are entitled to preference, from the acknowledged fertility of their soil, and its appropriate organization and capability of retaining moisture, independent of the advantage of water carriage. Several of the nutmeg trees, of the importation of 1798, at Moco Moco, are placed in soil of this description; although never manured, they are in the highest state of luxuriance, and bear abundantly; and I have been informed by a gentleman recently arrived from that station, that the stem of one of them measures thirty-eight inches in circumference. Some of the trees in my own experimental garden corroborate the truth of this assertion; one of these blossomed at the early age of two years ten months and a half, a degree of precocity ascribable solely to its proximity to the lake which forms the southern boundary. This was the first tree that blossomed of the importation of 1803, which consisted of upwards of 22,000

plants in the hot weather must be watered every other day, protected from the sun, and annually manured for five years before they yield any return

nutmeg plants. Next to the alluvial deposits, virgin forest-lands claim pre-eminence, their surface being covered with a dark-coloured carbonized mould, formed by the slow decay of falling leaves and mouldering trunks of trees; and next to these are to be ranked the open plains. Declivities are objectionable from the risk of the precipitation of the mould and manure into the subjacent ravines, by the heavy torrents of rain that occasionally deluge the country. Above all, the plantation must be protected from the southerly and northerly winds by a skirting of lofty trees, and if nature has not already made this provision, no time should be lost in belting the grounds with a double row of the Cassuarina littorea, and Cerbera manghas, which are well adapted for this purpose. This precautionary measure will not only secure the planter against eventual loss from the falling off of the blossom and young fruit in heavy gales, but will prevent the uprooting of the trees, a contingency to which they are liable, from the slender hold their roots have of the soil. If the plantation is extensive, subsidiary rows of these trees may be planted at convenient distances. No large trees whatever should be suffered to grow among the spice-trees, for these exclude the vivifying rays of the sun, and arrest the descent of the salutary night-dews, both of which are essential to the quality and quantity of the produce. They further rob the soil of its fecundity, and intermingle their roots with those of the spice-trees. It is true, that by the protection they afford, they prevent frequently the premature bursting of the husk, occasioned by the sudden action of a hot sun upon it, when saturated with rain; but the loss sustained in this way is not equal to the damage the spice-trees suffer from these intruders. Extensive tracts of land are to be met with in the interior of the country, well adapted for the cultivation of the nutmegs and cloves, and to these, undoubted preference is due.

In originating a nutmeg plantation, the first care of the cultivator is to select ripe nuts, and to set them at the distance of a foot apart in

to the planter; they demand constant and unremitting care in pruning, until the fifteenth year, the period of their greatest productiveness.

a rich soil, merely covering them very lightly with mould. They are to be protected from the heat of the sun, occasionally weeded, and watered in dry weather every other day. The seedlings may be expected to appear in from thirty to ninety days, and when four feet high, the healthiest and most luxuriant, consisting of three or four verticils are to be removed, in the commencement of the rains, to the plantation previously cleared of trees and underwood by burning and grubbing up their roots, and placed in holes dug for their reception at the distance of eighty feet from each other, screening them from the heat of the sun and violence of the winds. It is a matter of essential importance that the ground be well opened and its cohesion broken, in order to admit of the free expansion of the roots of the tender plants, and that it be intimately mixed with burnt earth and cow manure, in the proportion of two-thirds of the former, to one-third of the latter. The plants are to be set in rows, as well for the sake of the regularity, as for the more convenient traversing of the plough, which is now to be employed in clearing the intermediate spaces of lalang and other noxious grasses, carefully avoiding to trespass on the beds of the trees. They must be watered every other day in sultry weather, manured annually during the rains, with four garden baskets full of the above mentioned compost to each tree, and protected from the sun until they attain the age of five years. They will now be sufficiently hardy to bear the sun, and from that age, until their fifteenth year, the compost should consist of equal parts of cow-dung and burnt earth, and from three to twelve baskets full will be required for each bearing tree, a lesser proportion being distributed to the males. From the power of habit the trees will, after the fifteenth year, require a more stimulating nutriment; the dung ought not therefore to be more than two or three months old, and the mixture should consist of two parts of it to one of burnt earth, of which the suitable proportion will be from twelve to sixteen baskets to each tree, biennially. In all cases the prepared compost must be

The clove bears generally at the age of six years, and at twelve years is at its perfection; it seldom lives longer than twenty. The nutmeg is said to attain the age of sixty or seventy in the

spread out in the sun for three or four days previously to its application, in order to destroy grubs and worms that may have lodged in it, and which might injure the roots of the plants.

In all plantations, whether situated in forest land or in the plains, the necessity of manuring at stated intervals has been found indispensable, and is indeed identified with their prosperity. The proper mode of applying it is in a circular furrow, in immediate contact with the extremities of the fibrous roots, which may be called the absorbents of the plant. Where there is a scarcity of dung, recourse may be had to the dregs remaining after the preparation of the oil from the fruit of the Arachis hypogœa, which, in mixture with burnt earth, is a very stimulating manure; or composts may be formed from the decomposition of leaves or vegetable matter of any description. A very fertilizing and highly animalized liquid nutriment for plants, is obtained by macerating human ordure in water in proper pits for four or five months, and applying the fluid to the radical absorbents of the plants. Sea-weed, and many other articles may also be resorted to, which will readily occur to the intelligent agriculturist.

During the progressive growth of the plantation, the beds of the trees are to be regularly weeded, and the roots kept properly covered with the mould, for these have a constant tendency to seek the surface, the growth of the lateral branches alone is to be encouraged, and all suckers, or dead and unproductive branches are to be removed by the pruning knife, so as to thin the trees considerably, and to admit of the descent of the night-dews, which are greatly contributive to their well-being, especially during the dry and sultry weather; creepers are to be dislodged, and the lower verticils lopped off, with the view of establishing an unimpeded circulation of air. The conclusion of the great annual harvest is the fittest time for pruning the trees. After the eradication of the lallang, the growth of innoxious grasses is to be encouraged in the intervals between the trees,

Moluccas; in the Straits it seldom lives longer than twenty-four. The nutmegs, cloves, and mace of Pinang, are the finest in the world.

The cocoa-nut is one of the principal products

which will give the plantation the appearance of a park, and the plough is now to be abandoned.

The nutmeg-tree is monœcious as well as diœcious, but no means of discovering the sexes before the period of inflorescence are known. The relative proportion of male and female trees to each other, is also undefined, and is indeed the result of chance. Setting aside, however, all pretensions to mathematical precision, the number of productive trees may be roundly estimated at two-thirds of the whole cultivation. However presumptuous it may appear to arraign the operations of nature, I cannot but think that, with reference to the genus Myristica, she has made a most unnecessary provision in the creation of so many male trees, since the monœcious plants are fully as susceptible of the rapturous impulse of connubial bliss, and equally competent for the purposes of ardent and successful love. The number of male trees therefore necessary to be retained, will depend entirely on that of the diœcious kind; all above this number being considered superfluous, should be cut down, and other trees planted in their stead. Were I indeed to originate a nutmeg plantation now, I should either attempt to procure, on male stocks, grafts of such trees as produce the largest and best fruit, by the process of inarching, notwithstanding the speculative hypothesis of the graft partaking of the gradual and progressive decay of the parent tree, leaving a branch or two of the stock for the purpose of establishing a regular polygamy, by which means the plantation would consist of monœcious trees only; or I should place the young plants in the nursery at the distance of four feet from each other, and force them to an early discovery of their sex, by lifting them out of their beds once a year, and replacing them in the same spot, so as to check the growth of wood and viviparous branches. The sex might thus be ascertained on an average, within the fourth year, and the trees removed to the plantation and systematically arranged; whereas in the

of Pinang. The fruit of this useful tree, finds a place in the food of all classes of society. The fibrous husk is employed in manufacturing cordage

usual mode of proceeding, it is not ascertainable before the seventh year in general.

Upon an average, the nutmeg-tree fruits at the age of seven years, and increases in produce till the fifteenth year, when it is at its greatest productiveness. It is said to continue prolific for seventy or eighty years in the Moluccas, but our experience carries us no further than twenty-two years and a half, all the trees of which age that have been properly managed, are still in the highest degree of vigour and fecundity; and for this reason no term for planting a succession of trees can as yet be fixed upon. Seven months in general elapse between the appearance of the blossom, and ripening of the fruit, and the produce of one bearing tree with another under good cultivation, may, in the fifteenth year of the plantation, be calculated at five pounds of nutmegs, and a pound and quarter of mace. I have observed, however, that some trees produce every year a great quantity of fruit, whilst others constantly give very little. They bear all the year round, but more plentifully in some months than others. The great harvest may generally be looked for in the months of September, October, November, and December; a small one in April, May, and June. Like other fruit-trees on this portion of Sumatra, I have remarked that they yield more abundantly every other year. The fruit having ripened, the outer integument bursts spontaneously, and is gathered by means of a hook attached to a long stick, and the mace being cautiously stripped off, and flattened by the hands in single layers, is placed on mats for three or four days in the sun to dry. Some planters cut off the heels and dry the mace in double blades, from an opinion that the insect is apt to breed in or about the heels, and that the double blade gives a better and more substantial appearance to the mace. The former idea is entirely groundless, for if the article be properly cured, kept in tight packages in a dry situation and exposed to the sun for five or six hours once a fortnight, there need be no apprehension of the insect; if it is not, it

for shipping and other purposes; and the oil universally used for burning, almost to the exclusion of candles. It is also, in the Straits, very gene-

will assuredly be attacked by it, whether the heels be cut off or not; again, the insect is much more likely to nestle within the fold of the double blade, and the fancied superiority of appearance has so little weight with the purchaser, as not to counterbalance the risk of probable deterioration and eventual loss. In damp and rainy weather the mace should be dried by the heat of a charcoal fire carefully conducted, so as not to smoke it or blacken its surface.

The nuts, liberated from their macy envelope, are transported to the drying-house, and deposited on an elevated stage of split neebongs, placed at a sufficient distance from each other to admit the heat from a mouldering fire beneath, without suffering even the smallest nuts to pass through. The heat should not exceed 140 of Fahrenheit, for a sudden inordinate degree of heat dries up the kernels of the nuts too rapidly, and its continued application produces fissures in them; or a fermentation is excited in them, which increases their volume so greatly as to fill up the whole cavity of the shell, and to prevent them from rattling when put to this criterion of due preparation. The fire is lighted in the evening, and kept up for the whole of the night. The smoking-house is a brick building of a suitable size with a terraced roof, and the stage is placed at an elevation of ten feet from the ground, having three divisions in it for the produce of different months. The nuts must be turned every second or third day, that they may all partake equally of the heat, and such as have undergone the smoking process for the period of two complete months and rattle freely in the shell, are to be cracked with wooden mallets, the worm-eaten and shrivelled ones thrown out, and the good ones rubbed over simply with recently prepared well-sifted dry lime. They are now to be regarbled, and finally packed for transportation in tight casks, the insides of which have been smoked, cleaned, and covered with a coating of fresh water and lime. If packed in chests, the seams must be dammered to prevent the admission of air or water. There is no necessity for sorting them, as

rally substituted for ghee as an article of food. It has been lately adopted in England for the manufacture of candles. The number of bearing trees

previously to their sale they are classed into sizes in the Company's warehouses in London.

The mode generally practised in preparing nutmegs for the market, is to dip them in a mixture of salt water and lime, and to spread them out on mats for four or five days in the shade to dry. I am, however, convinced, from much experience, that this is a pernicious practice, not only from the quantity of moisture imbibed in this process encouraging the breeding of insects, and rendering the nuts liable to early decay, but from the heating quality of the mixture producing fissures, and occasioning a great loss in the out-turn; whereas by liming them simply in the dry way as I have recommended, the loss ought not to exceed eight per cent. In May, 1816, I made some experiments on this subject. I cracked a quantity of nutmegs that had been smoke-dried for two months, and distributed them into four equal portions. I prepared the nuts of one parcel with a mixture of lime and salt water; those of the second were rubbed over merely with fine well-dried shell-lime, such as the natives use with their betel, although I have no doubt but that recently prepared and well-sifted common lime would answer equally well; those of the third parcel were mixed unlimed with one-third of weight of whole black pepper; and those of the fourth, also unlimed, with the same proportion of cloves. They were then put into separate boxes with sliding tops, and numbered one, two, three, and four, in the order I have mentioned them. At the expiration of the first year, they were all sound. After that of the second, I found three worm-eaten nuts in No. 1, and two in No. 3, but those in Nos. 2 and 4 remained untouched. The injured nuts were allowed to remain, and after the lapse of the third year, five worm-eaten ones were discovered in No. 1, three in No. 3, and two in No. 4, those in No. 2 being in their original state. Four years and four months have now elapsed since the commencement of experiments, and upon examining the several parcels the other day, the

in Pinang, has been estimated at 50,000, but this is considerably below the present number. Captain Low gives the following particulars relative to the cultivation of the cocoa-nut tree.

number of decayed nuts has not increased in Nos. 1, 3, and 4; those in No. 2 are as good as the day they were put into the box. These experiments not only prove the superiority of liming in the dry way; but also the fact that the progress to general decay in a heap of nutmegs, even after the insect has established itself, must be a work of years. In the shell they will keep for a great length of time. I have myself kept them in this state for six years, and when cracked they were found perfectly sound. From the report of the London brokers, however, they will not answer in Europe on account of the heavy allowance for shells, which is one-third of the weight; but the Chinese merchants are in the daily habit of exporting them to Pinang and China, where they are in request. It is stated on the best authority, that unlimed or brown nutmegs, as the home dealers call them, mixed with cloves as in experiment No. 4, are highly esteemed in England, and even preferred by some to the limed produce; most probably from the greater facility of detecting the flaws in them in their naked state.

Although the clove tree attains great perfection in the red mould of these districts, it is more partial to a less tenacious soil. Its cultivation has been established for many years in the West Indies, and at Bourbon, and is of secondary importance only. The mother cloves are planted in rich mould so as to reduce its tenacity; and are to be cultivated in the same mode as the nutmegs, only that when full grown, they require less manure in the proportion of one-third. They yield generally at the age of six years; and at that of twelve, are in their highest state of bearing, when the average produce may be estimated at six or seven pounds of marketable fruit, each tree, during the harvest, which takes place in the rainy months; but with us they have hitherto borne two crops in three years only. The fruit is terminal, and when of a reddish hue is plucked by the hand, so that the process of gathering it is tedious. It is then dried for

"On a rough estimate, for an actual numeration has not been lately taken, the total number of bearing trees on Pinang, may be stated at 50,000, and those in Province Wellesley at 20,000; but very large accessions to these numbers have of late years been made. The tree is partial to a sandy soil in the vicinity of the sea, and Province Wellesley offers therefore greater facilities, perhaps, for its cultivation, than Pinang does, as its line of clear beach is longer and has many narrow strips of light or sandy land lying betwixt

several days on mats in the sun, until it breaks easily between the fingers, and assumes a dark brown colour. It loses about sixty per cent. in drying. When past its prime, the clove tree has a ragged and uncombed appearance; and I am led to suppose that its existence is limited to twenty years, unless in very superior soil, in which it may drag out a protracted and unprofitable state of being to the period of perhaps twenty-four years. Hence it becomes necessary to plant a succession of seedings, when the old trees have attained eight years of age, and this octennial succession must be steadily kept in view.

With reference to the number of labourers, cattle, and ploughs, necessary for a plantation of 1000 nutmeg or clove trees after the ground has been thoroughly cleared of underwood and stumps of trees, I consider that seven Chinese or active Bengalee labourers, fifty head of cattle, and two ploughs, would be sufficient for all the purposes of the cultivation, with the exception of collecting the clove harvest, which being a very tedious process, would require an extra number of hands, and, indeed, the best plan would be to gather it in by contract.

(From a paper by Mr. J. Lumsdaive, in the Proceedings of the Agricultural Society, established in Sumatra 1820.)

the alluvial flats inland. There are several kinds of this tree known here; one has a yellowish colour observable both on the branches and unripe fruit; its branches do not droop much. A second has green spreading branches, more drooping than the former, the fruits being green-coloured until ripe. This is perhaps most prolific; it also bears the soonest, if we except the dwarf cocoa-nut, which fruits at the second or third year before the stem has got above one foot high. This last kind was brought from Malacca; it attains in time to the height of the common sort; its fruit is small and round, and of course, less valuable than the other sorts: there is also a cocoa-nut so saturated with green, that the oil expressed from its kernel partakes of that colour.

"It is a mistaken supposition that the cocoa-nut tree will flourish without care being taken of it. The idea has been induced by the luxuriant state of trees in close proximity to houses and villages, and in small coves, where its roots are washed by the sea. In such circumstances, a tree, from being kept clear about the roots, from being shaded, and from occasional stimuli, advances rapidly to perfection; but in an extended plantation, a regular and not inexpensive system of culture must be followed to ensure success.

"The nuts being selected when perfectly ripe

from middle-aged trees of the best sorts, are to be laid on the ground under shades, and after the roots and middle shoot with two branches have appeared, the sooner they are planted the better. Out of 100 nuts, only two-thirds, on an average, will be found to vegetate. The plants are then to be set out at intervals of thirty or forty feet, the latter if ground can be spared, and the depth will be regulated by the nature of the soil, and the nut must not be covered with earth. The plants require, in exposed situations, to be shaded for one or even two years, and no lallang grass must be permitted to encroach on their roots. A nursery must be always held in readiness to supply the numerous vacancies which will occur from deaths and accidents. The following may be considered the average cost of a plantation until it comes into bearing:

ORIGINAL INVESTMENT OF MONEY IN THE PURCHASE.

100 Orlongs of Land, &c.

Purchase money of land ready for planting	1000
7000 nuts at 1½ dr. per 100	105
Houses of coolies, carts, buffaloes, &c., &c.	100
Spanish dollars.....	1205

YEARLY EXPENDITURE FOR SEVEN YEARS.

1st year ten labourers at 3 drs. per month including carts, &c.	360	
Tear and wear of buildings, carts, and implements	50	
Overseer at 7 drs. per month	84	
Quit rent average	50	
Nursery and contingencies	50	
Expenditure per annum	594	
Seven years at this rate will be...		4158
Total investment at the end of 7 years		5363

"To this sum, interest at 5 per cent. will have to be added, making perhaps a sum total of Spanish drs. 6,616, and this estimate will make each tree up to its coming into bearing cost one Spanish dollar at the lowest. The young cocoa-nut tree requires manure, such as putrid fish and stimulating compounds, containing a portion of salt. On the Coromandel Coast the natives put a handful of salt below each nut when planting it.

"The chief natural enemy of this tree is a species of elephant beetle, which begins by nibbling the leaves into the shape of a fan; it then perforates the central pithy fibre, so that the leaf snaps off, and lastly it descends into the folds of

the upper shoot, where it bores itself a nest, and, if not speedily extracted or killed, will soon destroy the tree. It has been found impossible to cultivate the cocoa-nut tree at Singapore, on account of the depredations of this creature.*

"In Pinang and Province Wellesley, it has only been observed within the last two years, and is believed to have come from Keddah. A similar kind of beetle is, however, known on the Coromandel Coast, and it is extracted by means of a long iron needle or probe having a barb like that of a fish-hook. By using this, and by pouring salt or brine on the top of the tree so as to descend amongst the folds of the upper shoot, the evil may be prevented or got rid of; the natives of Keddah say that this insect appears at intervals of two, three, or more years.

"The cultivators here adopt a very slovenly expedient for collecting the fruit. Instead of climbing the tree in the manner practised on the Coromandel Coast, by help of a hoop passing round the tree and the body of the climber, and a ligature so connecting the feet as to enable him to clasp the tree with them, the Malays cut deep notches or steps in the trunk, in a zig-zag manner, sufficient

* There are now several young plantations on Singapore Island, which are thriving very well.—E. S. C.

to support the toes or the side of the foot, and thus ascend, with the extra aid only of their arms. This mode is also a dangerous one, as a false step, when near the top of a high tree, generally precipitates the climber to the ground. This notching cannot prove otherwise than injurious to the tree. But the besetting sin of the planter of cocoa-nuts, and other productive trees, is that of crowding them. Cocoa-nut trees, whose roots occupy, when full grown, circles of from forty to fifty feet in diameter, may often be found planted within eight or ten feet of each other, and in the Native Campongs all sorts of indigenous fruit trees are jumbled together with so little space to spread in, that they mostly assume the aspect of forest-trees, and yield but sparing crops.

"The common kinds of the cocoa-nut, under very favourable circumstances, begin to bear at six years of age; but little produce can be expected until the middle or end of the seventh year. The yearly produce of one tree with another may be averaged at eighty nuts the tree; when the plantation is a flourishing one, assuming the number of trees in one hundred orlongs to be 5000, the annual produce will be four hundred thousand nuts; the minimum market value of which will be four thousand Spanish dollars, and the maximum 8000 dollars. From either of these

sums six per cent. must be deducted for the cost of collecting and carriage, &c. The quantity of oil which can be manufactured from the above number of nuts will be, as nearly as possible, 834 China piculs, of $133\frac{1}{3}$ lbs.

The average price of this quantity, at seven drs. per picul	5,838
Deduct cost of manufacturing, averaged at $\frac{1}{4}$, and of collecting, watching, &c....	2,059
Profit Sp. dr....	3,779

"The Chinese, who are the principal manufacturers of the oil, readily give a picul of it in exchange for 710 ripe nuts, being at the rate of about 563 instead of 834 piculs of oil, as the total produce of the plantation of 100 orlongs. The price of cocoa-nut oil has been so high in the London market as from 30*l.* to 35*l.* per ton, or about an average of ten dollars per picul. But it rose last year to fifteen dollars per picul in Pinang, and is now at nine dollars. It is said, that English casks have not been found tight enough for the conveyance of this oil to Europe; but if the article is really in great demand, a method will, no doubt, be discovered to obviate this inconvenience.

"So long, however, as the cultivator can obtain a dollar and a half, or even one dollar for 100

nuts, he will not find it profitable to make oil, unless its price rises greatly.

"Soap is manufactured at Pondicherry from this oil, but it is not seemingly in repute; the attempt has not been made in Pinang with a view to a market.

"There is scarcely any coir-rope manufactured at this island, so that the profit which might (were labour cheaper) rise from this application of the cocoa-nut fibre, is lost. The shell makes good charcoal; the leaves are scarcely put to any purpose, the nipah being a superior material for thatching.

"The cocoa-nut tree is exceedingly apt to be struck by lightning; and in such cases it is generally destroyed. It is a dangerous tree, therefore, to have close to a house.

"If the trees are widely planted, coffee may be cultivated under their shade. It is generally believed that the extracting of toddy from this tree hastens its decline.

"The Nicobar and Lancavi islands used partly to supply the Pinang market with this indispensable article; but the depopulation has greatly reduced the quantity.

"On the whole it may be said, that there is no cultivation which insures the return of produce with so much certainty as that of the cocoa-nut-

tree; and as "Rangoon, the Tenasserim coast, and Singapore will, probably, always remain good markets for the raw nut, there appears to be every chance of the value of that produce affording ample remuneration to the planter."

The produce of pepper is very trifling; its cultivation, in consequence of the low price it bears in the market, having been almost abandoned. That of clayed-sugar from Pinang and Province Wellesley is estimated at 654 tons per season, and from four to five thousand piculs of coarse black sugar. Gambir, indigo, cotton, areca, and tobacco, are grown in small quantities. Coffee flourishes, and the produce, as well as that of the cotton plant, is of a superior quality. But the attention of the agriculturist is now almost exclusively directed to the improvement and extension of the spice-plantations. Captain Low states, that "dry waste land for plantations may be obtained from Government on leases of forty years, at a quit-rent, varying according to the locality, but not on the average exceeding 2 rupees an orlong, from two to five years being allowed rent-free, and the rent gradually increasing to the maximum. Persons desirous of growing spices, or other valuable products, may, it is believed, on application to the Government, have the term extended."

"A very large portion of the land at Pinang and Province Wellesley is held by grants in perpetuity at various rates of quit-rent, the latter rarely exceeding one-tenth per centum of the gross grain produce, and never more than one-fifth, which is less than one-third of the average of rent in England—that being about thirty-three per cent., and is much below the rent taken by Government in any other part of British India. Quit-rents of long occupied land in Pinang, and of some lands in Province Wellesley, do not exceed one per cent. of the value of the gross grain produce. The assessment for roads on Pinang lands has hitherto been two and a half per cent. on the estimated clear rental, and is confined to the island as yet for many substantial reasons. Lands thus held, and not cultivated, with valuable trees, are daily in the market, the price varying from ten up to forty dollars an orlong, equal to one-and-a-third of an acre. The original costs of clearing primeval forest cannot be averaged at less than ten Spanish dollars an orlong under the most favourable circumstances, and fifteen, or even twenty dollars, may not be considered too high an estimate for many of the stronger soils. The cost of keeping it clear depends on many varying circumstances."

The following is a summary abstract of the trade of Pinang for 1836-7.

ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM THE 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH APRIL, 1837, AND THEIR SEVERAL VALUES IN SICCA RUPEES.

	S. Rup.		S. Rup.
Alum	600	Gin	5,824
Antimony ore	294	Gold dust	5,000
Arrack	3,690	Gold thread	5,600
Beche de mer	30,374	Gunnies	21,476
Benjamin	131,141	Iron	38,632
Beer	15,596	Lead	2,180
Bees wax	14,985	Lutestring	26,074
Betel nut	281,108	Oil and ghee	48,783
Birds' feathers	73,560	Opium	849,674
Ditto nests	43,325	Pepper, black	542,753
Brandy	20,142	Ditto, white	794
Brass ware	12,376	Piece goods, Europe	825,820
Brimstone	700	Ditto, ditto, India	995,192
Buffalo hides	6,237	Rattan	20,918
Bugis sarongs	33,681	Raw silk	37,775
Camphor, Malay	81,180	Rice	221,856
Cardamums	2,386	Rum	1,340
Cassia	2,980	Sago	4,284
China root	3,695	Salt	49,090
Coffee	12,000	Saltpetre	1,998
Coir rope, &c.	12,136	Shark fins	2,570
Copper	19,416	Spices	2,647
Cotton	48,746	Steel	13,147
Cutch	11,166	Sticklac	22,760
Dammer, raw	14,806	Sugar	11,545
Dholl, grain, & wheat	26,422	Teak plank, &c.	2,020
Dragon's blood	190	Tin	496,688
Ebony	51,140	Tobacco leaf	19,863
Elephants' teeth	4,736	Ditto, China	56,238
Fish maws	9,551	Ditto, Java	66,334

	S. Rup.		S. Rup.
Tortoise shell	14,006	China, sundries	214,939
Wood, Sapan	1,844	Europe, ditto.....	285,003
Wines	17,503	India, ditto.....	96,958
Woollens	20,110	Straits, ditto	44,311

Total, sicca rupees	6,061,908
Specie	1,145,136½
Grand Total, sicca rupees	7,207,044½
Or Company's rupees	7,687,513¾

ARTICLES EXPORTED AND THEIR SEVERAL VALUES, FROM THE 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH APRIL, 1837.

	S. Rup.		S. Rup.
Alum	810	Copper.....	2,680
Antimony ore	2,400	Cotton	43,896
Arrack	5,622	Cutch	13,178
Beche de mer	56,681	Dammer, raw	15,728
Benjamin	86,318	Dholl, grain, & wheat	8,164
Beer	1,010	Dragon's blood	1,866
Bees wax	17,440	Ebony	40,732
Betel nut	333,295	Elephants' teeth	16,080
Birds' feathers	60,810	Fish maws	14,070
Ditto, nests	106,040	Gin	820
Brandy	11,084	Gold dust.....	11,000
Brass ware	10,441	Gold thread	12,883
Brimstone.....	2,058	Iron	32,953
Buffalo hides	9,515	Lead	1,744
Bugis sarongs	7,210	Lutestring	30,209
Camphor, Malay	57,660	Oil and ghee.....	10,901
Cassia	4,900	Opium	715,919
Cardamums	3,352	Pepper, black	660,767
China root	402	Pepper, white	24,628
Coffee	1,587	Piece goods, Europe	228,001
Coir rope.....	7,778	Ditto ditto India ..	852,762

	S. Rup.		S. Rup.
Rattans	31,452	Tin	669,486
Raw silk	27,465	Tobacco, leaf	34,937
Rice	164,572	Ditto, China	31,406
Sago	5,500	Ditto, Java	10,902
Salt	37,121	Tortoise shell	10,965
Saltpetre	2,958	Wines	2,534
Shark fins	11,395	Wood, sapan	3,108
Spices	156,846	Woollens	11,767
Steel	10,239	China, sundries	120,024
Sticklac	40,020	Europe, ditto	162,151
Sugar	68,780	India, ditto	35,762
Teak planks, &c.	3,119	Straits, ditto	67,933

Total, sicca rupees	5,245,836
Specie	921,052½
Grand total, sicca rupees	6,166,888½
Or, Company's rupees	6,578,014½

VALUE OF ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM THE UNDERMENTIONED PORTS, FROM 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH APRIL, 1837.

Calcutta		822,195
Madras and Coromandel Coast	974,231	
Specie	1,401½	
		975,632½
Bombay	178,067	
Specie	22,703	
		200,770
Ceylon		38,356
England	532,792	
Specie	40,205½	
		572,997½
France	23,493	
Specie	28,628	
		52,121

America	33,100	
Specie	75,990½	109,090½
Mauritius	37,000	
Specie	13,293	50,293
Tenasserim Coast	260,353	
Specie	21,649¼	282,002¼
Acheen	759,008	
Specie	582,727	1,341,735
Malacca	39,816	
Specie	52,625	92,441
Singapore	1,088,823	
Specie	273,043	1,361,866
China		213,980
Siam	381,603	
Specie	2,105	383,708
Delli	436,836	
Specie	19,787	456,623
Quedah		110,788
Other Native Ports	131,422	
Specie	10,978½	142,400½
Grand Total, sicca rupees		7,206,999½
Or Company's rupees		7,687,466

VALUE OF ARTICLES EXPORTED TO THE UNDER-MENTIONED PORTS, FROM 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH OF APRIL, 1837.

Calcutta	544,041	
Specie	26,670½	570,711½

Madras	209,422	
Specie	346,731	556,153
Bombay	138,840	
Specie	73,676	212,516
Ceylon		19,153
England		473,801
France		99,099
America		57,325
Mauritius	2,225	
Specie	16,840	19,065
Tenasserim Coast	221,035	
Specie	17,882	238,917
Acheen	1,063,559	
Specie	77,621¾	1,141,180¾
Malacca		41,481
Singapore	1,023,363	
Specie	139,266¾	1,162,629¾
China		648,523
Siam	309,941	
Specie	50,520	360,461
Delli	226,194	
Specie	73,675	299,869
Quedah	77,091	
Specie	28,284¾	105,375¾
Other Native Ports	90,742	
Specie	69,886	160,628
Grand Total, sicca rupees		6,166,888¾
Or Company's rupees		6,578,014½

ARTICLES INCLUDED IN THE FOREGOING GENERAL STATEMENT OF VALUE, IMPORTED UNDER FOREIGN FLAGS, FROM THE 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH APRIL, 1837, AND THEIR RESPECTIVE VALUE.

ARTICLES.	PORTUGAL.	FRENCH.	AMERICAN.	AMOUNT.
	Amount.	Amount.	Amount.	
Brandy	..	8,125	960	9,085
Brass ware.....	10,558	..	..	10,558
China root.....	3,060	..	..	3,060
Copper	..	..	4,030	4,030
Lutestring	22,304	..	..	22,304
Opium	3,150	..	..	3,150
Piece goods	..	500	21,000	21,500
Raw silk	23,500	..	..	23,550
Rope, Europe ..	..	..	960	960
Rum	1,340	..	..	1,340
Salt.....	4,600	..	..	4,600
Sugar candy	980	..	..	980
Tobacco, China..	36,713	..	..	36,713
Wines	..	2,314	..	2,314
China, sundries..	93,781	..	..	93,781
Europe, ditto .	..	12,554	6,150	18,704
	200,036	23,493	33,100	256,629
Specie	..	28,628	75,990½	104,618½
Total sicca rupees				361,247½
Or Company's rupees				385,330

ARTICLES INCLUDED IN THE FOREGOING GENERAL STATEMENT OF VALUE, EXPORTED UNDER FOREIGN FLAGS, FROM THE 1ST MAY, 1836, TO THE 30TH APRIL, 1837, AND THEIR RESPECTIVE VALUE.

ARTICLES.	PORTUGAL.	FRENCH.	AMERICAN.	AMOUNT.
	Amount.	Amount.	Amount.	
Beche der mer ..	46,400	..	..	46,400
Betel nut	3,197	..	..	3,197
Birds' feathers ..	58,430	..	..	58,430
Ditto, nests	93,630	..	..	93,630
Buffaloe hides ..	1,945	700	..	2,645
Camphor, Malay	57,120	..	..	57,120
Cardamum.....	500	..	..	500
Cotton	1,100	..	..	1,100
Cutch.....	3,616	..	..	3,616
Dragon's blood..	1,866	..	..	1,866
Ebony	16,000	..	..	16,000
Elephants' teeth	6,320	..	..	6,320
Fish maws.....	12,020	..	..	12,020
Opium	7,430	..	..	7,430
Pepper, black ..	34,651	14,000	28,825	77,476
Ditto, white	3,905	1,001	..	4,906
Rattans	5,060	60	..	5,120
Rice	25,241	..	..	25,241
Shark fins	4,712	..	..	4,712
Spices	3,490	70	..	3,560
Tin	27,972	83,268	28,500	139,740
Tortoise shell....	1,500	..	..	1,500
Wood, sapan....	421	..	..	421
Total, sicca rs...	416,526	99,099	57,325	572,950
Or Company's rupees				611,146⅔

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS DURING THE OFFICIAL YEARS, 1835–36, AND 1836–37.

	Amount during 1835-36.	Amount during 1836-37.	INCREASE.
Amount of Imports, including specie, from the 1st May, 1835, to the 30th April, 1836	5,421,007	7,687,465	2,266,458
Amount of Exports, including specie for the same period	5,367,523	6,578,013	1,210,490
Total increase in favour of 1836-37, is sicca rupees..			3,476,948

This increase of trade, it will be seen by the following summary of imports and exports for the six preceding years, had been progressive for some time previously.

	Imports. sicca rupees.	Exports. sicca rupees.
1830-1	2,670,640	3,420,121
1831-2	2,879,049	4,013,459
1832-3	3,842,546	3,667,322
1833-4	4,272,747	3,958,044
1834-5	4,112,791	4,161,464
1835-6	4,117,694	4,206,758

The latter account, does not include specie

imported or exported during the period to which it has reference.

The Malays have several schools at Pinang, in which the Koran is taught, and the principles of the Mohammedan religion. The following account of their system of education is from the Indo-Chinese Gleaner (vol. iii. page. 10.) It affords a melancholy picture of the state of moral and intellectual darkness that every where attends the baneful influence of the tenets of Mohammed.

Age and Ceremonies on entering the School.— There is no fixed standard as to age; all are admitted from six years old, and upwards; just as circumstances may direct. The parents, at the time they deliver up a child to the master, offer a small present of plantains, sirih, tobacco, &c.; sometimes a few pice, and, when they can afford it, a rupee, or a dollar. They then say to the master, "This child we entirely surrender to you; he is not now ours, but yours; we only ask for his eyes and limbs, and that he may not be crippled, or severely wounded by chastisement. In every other respect he is solely at the disposal of the teacher." After these ceremonies, the child is regularly received by the master into the school, and entitled to all the advantages of the

institution. There is an additional agreement, which comes under the head

Of School Fees.—In this particular, also, there is nothing definite as to the actual sum, unless the same be stated in a written or verbal agreement. When a boy has gone through the Koran, which is considered a kind of finish to his education, his parents give *Sedekah*, or alms, which, in this instance, has a special reference to what is given exclusively for instruction. The parents reward the teacher according to their ability. The rich will give from twenty to seventy dollars, and upwards; and if they consider the master as having done his duty, frequently add a new turban, a gown, and a piece of white cloth. A feast sometimes follows, to which a company of old men are invited, who are supposed to know the Koran well. The boy is called into the presence of these old men, and of his master, when he is ordered to read, with an audible voice, a chapter or two from the Koran; after this, the judgment of the old men, if favourable, as it usually is, obtains for the teacher the reputation of being very learned.

In many instances, however, the school-master does not succeed so well, and not unfrequently fails to get any remuneration whatever from parents whose children he has instructed. If the father die, or become very poor, the master either

loses, or has great difficulty in procuring the expected "*Sedekah*;" it being perfectly optional with the parents whether they give any thing or not; and extreme poverty is always considered a sufficient excuse for withholding the "*Sedekah*." An instance lately occurred, in which a master, after having taught four children to read the Koran, could not obtain a single rupee, though the father had, in a verbal agreement, promised 100 dollars for each boy. I have known several similar cases. To go to law, under such circumstances, is also certain disgrace to the master, who, by so doing, is considered as committing a great sin, and transgressing the laws of Islam. Very poor people can take their children to a Mohammedan teacher for instruction, and should he refuse, or ask for wages as the condition, he is, *ipso facto*, dishonoured; for he is obliged to receive them. The Moslems say, that all good teachers, who fear God in truth, will not—dare not—ask any recompence for instructing the ignorant.

School Hours.—It will appear, nevertheless, that the poor school-master has plenty to do. The schools open in the morning at seven o'clock, and close at eleven, when the children go home to eat rice. At two o'clock the schools are re-opened, and the children read till five; when the master's

ordinary work for the day is done. The time, also, of continuance at school is quite uncertain. Some boys, who are of a very bright intellect, will go through the Koran in one year; but many require a much longer space of time; and some, even in ten years, do not finish the book. Hence it happens, that if the poor Moslem teachers do sometimes acquire unmerited reputation, they much more frequently suffer the hardships of unrequited toil, and the misery of undeserved disgrace, results which are rapidly bringing into disuse the present system of education. The children receive no rewards whatever for making progress in learning; while, on the other hand, their

Punishments are very severe, if they do not learn. All the encouragement they receive is, that punishment will not be inflicted if they behave well.

For gambling, the boys are punished by having pieces of rattan placed between each finger, and the fingers' ends bound tight together.

For playing truant, a piece of wood, as heavy as the boy can lift, and which he must take with him wherever he goes, is fastened by a chain to his body. This punishment is continued till he appears sorry for what he has done. When several boys are guilty of this offence, they are chained together, two and two, and the one not being able

to go any where without the other, makes it a very disagreeable punishment. Sometimes the boys are suspended from a pole by the hands only—their feet about an inch from the ground. For fighting, the offending party is beaten with rattans by all the boys in the school; and if, in the judgment of the master, they are too mild, he himself chastises the offender very severely. Others are ordered to lay hold of the left ear with the right hand and the right ear with the left hand, then to prostrate themselves at the feet of the master, as often as he shall require. Should the boys, by accident, let go their hold, they are severely flogged.

For lying, the boy is placed in a corner of the room, and remains there till the wrath of the master is appeased. If for any length of time, the boy's parents send him food.

For calling ill names, the boys are made to take hold of each other by the ears, and to rise and sit together as often as the master shall order. The boys find it difficult to rise and sit at the same moment of time; and he who is in the least tardy, receives a few strokes from the rattan for each offence.

Method of teaching, and what is taught.—The boys are first taught the Arabic alphabet, which is mostly written on a board for that pur-

pose; when they know all the characters, the Koran is put into their hands, and they read a chapter which treats on prayer. But if the master does not explain the same to them, they are just as wise, when they have read the chapter, as they were before; and as the Koran is in the Arabic tongue, the teacher himself is frequently unable to explain it. Great numbers read the Koran who are not able to explain a single chapter. It is the chief book which is read in these schools, and nothing more is taught, unless the master is desired to do so by the parents. In some instances, the children continue at school after they have read the Koran, when they proceed to the *Alkitab*, or the book, which explains the doctrines and ceremonies of Islam. Five leading tenets are principally insisted upon, and care is taken to impress the minds of the children with the importance of them; and frequently these doctrines are interspersed with the regular lessons of the day. It is no uncommon thing, when passing the Native schools among the Islams, to hear the children singing praises to all the prophets; and they are thus supposed to have made considerable progress in their learning.

Writing is also taught in the Native schools, as soon as the boys can read with tolerable facility. They commence by writing the characters on

boards, which, when full, are washed and used again; and so they proceed, by degrees, to the use of paper, and write what the master may order.

The Propaganda Mission has a college, where upwards of twenty Chinese are educated. Both Malay and Chinese schools have been established by the Christian Missions, for the support of which the Court of Directors liberally sanctioned an allowance of 360 Spanish dollars per annum. The difficulties complained of by the Missionaries, in their first efforts to establish these schools, were the suspicions entertained by the Natives, that their object was to entrap the children, and to take them to some distant part of the world, and that the exclusion of the Koran was meditated. Now, if I may venture to offer an opinion on the subject, these obstacles were partly owing to the indiscreet zeal of the Missionaries themselves, who acknowledged that the New Testament, the performance of short religious services, and a variety of tracts, were introduced into the schools, at a very early period after their establishment. This the Natives, who are remarkably tenacious and jealous in such matters, rightly enough continue to regard in the light of an attempt to subvert the religion of their forefathers; a religion they have looked up to from early childhood with superstitious awe and veneration. Thus becom-

ing alarmed, many leave the schools abruptly, or are compelled to do so by their parents; and a few remain from interested motives, secretly more inveterate than ever against the Christian religion, and doubly vigilant against any future attempts at conversion. I am assured, on unquestionable authority, that many mosques and pagodas, formerly deserted, in Southern India, are now filled by Natives, roused to a state of bigotry and jealous alarm, in consequence of the injudicious and premature attack upon the bulwarks of their religion, made by over-zealous persons, who forget, in their haste to see the fruits of the seed, that they are sowing it in ground unprepared for its reception. The result, in short, of a constant and careful observation of the Native mind in India, is my firm conviction that, almost every attempt at conversion should be preceded by an education, the natural effect of which would be, without shocking his prejudices, to inspire the Hindoo with a just sense of our superiority over him in some respects, whence would gradually follow a deference also for our religious opinions, and by the blessing of God, a craving for our knowledge of Christianity, as well as of the other things in which he had learned our undoubted pre-eminence.

Now, such an education would, I am persuaded, be best carried into effect by confining, in the

first instance, the instruction given, to reading, writing, arithmetic, and as I have before suggested, to some suitable handicraft or trade. For, in spite of the spirit of illiberality and prejudice often mixed up with the truth in the remarks of the Abbé Dubois, the following observations, quoted by the Asiatic Journal, are not, I fear, utterly without foundation.

"What is, then," asks the Abbé, "and what will at all times be, the answer of a Hindu of common sense to an Englishman or a Frenchman, who will presume to come forward for the purpose of reforming him? 'You speak to me of religion and morality, and you boast of a great superiority over me in these respects; but pray, how comes it that, from the very accounts which you are not ashamed to publish even in this my supposed-thoroughly-corrupted country, it appears that, in each of your respective metropolises, London and Paris, you reckon no less than 40,000 prostitutes, who keep shops of infamy, and live by the most unruly dissoluteness? Look, gentlemen, to Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and see whether you will be able to find such an extensive sink of corruption, and so large a proportion of vice, among the crowded population of these large cities.'"

Pinang, as a military post, is almost without

defence. There is, however, a work, dignified by the name of Fort Cornwallis, standing on the apex of the triangular plain on which the town is built, which, from its construction, is incapable of affording protection either to the shipping in the harbour or to the inhabitants of the town. The sea has made considerable encroachment of late years. Towards the end of 1836, an extraordinary rise of the tide occurred, that washed away great part of the outworks, and made a complete breach into the ditch. The military establishment, at both Pinang and Province Wellesley, amounts only to six companies of Madras Native Infantry, and a small detachment of Artillery: a force which might serve to support the police, but is utterly inadequate for protection in case of Siamese invasion, or any hostile combination on the part of the neighbouring Malayan chiefs. The great alarm which prevailed on the Siamese flotilla invading Quedah, in 1821, when many of the wealthy native inhabitants made preparation for conveying their property to other British settlements; and again, on the appearance of the Quedah and Perak armament in April, 1836, prove what little reliance is placed by the government and inhabitants of Pinang on the sufficiency of the present military force. A few documents relative to the

latter event will show the truth of these observations.

"PROCLAMATION.

"Whereas the Honourable the Governor of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, and Malacca, has intimated to me that it is possible an aggression upon this island may be meditated by a numerous flotilla, under the direction of the Rajah Muda of Perak, which is understood to be now collected to the southward of this island; I hereby convene a meeting of all British subjects residing in Prince of Wales' Island, at the Sheriff's Office, in the Court House, at 3 o'clock this afternoon, for the purpose of taking into consideration and adopting the best means of protecting life and property, and in aiding me to maintain the King's peace.

"God save the King.

"R. F. WINGROVE, Sheriff."

P. W. Island, Sheriff's Office,
26th April, 1836.

"State of excitement and alarm.—The inhabitants of Pinang have been thrown into a state of excitement and alarm from apprehension of being visited by a fleet of forty or fifty Malay prows, which, according to the information obtained by government, are assembled at Brooas, in the

Perak territory, under the command of the Rajah Muda of Perak, for the purpose of invading Quedah, and reinstating the ex-Rajah of that province, who, instead of proceeding to Dallih, in the island of Sumatra, as was his intention, and for which he obtained the permission of the government of Bengal, is now at Brooas, aiding and encouraging by his presence the equipment and proceedings of this formidable armament, said to consist of 1,400 fighting-men, composed chiefly of Malay pirates, whose object, it is conjectured, would be, if permitted to pass through Pinang harbour, a dash at the town and shipping, as offering a better reward for their enterprise than any thing they would be likely to obtain from the ex-Rajah. In the absence of any ship of war, and the government tender, the head authority who is here has taken up and armed and manned as combatants, a merchant bark and a schooner-rigged boat, for the protection of the harbour, and to resist, (as by treaty the Company is bound) the passage of any invading force directed towards the Siamese territory. The troops, consisting of about 500 men, European and Native, are all under arms, either on the island or Province Wellesley, (the latter being the thoroughfare to Quedah, if the invaders are prevented passing in their prows); the leading

Christian and Native inhabitants have been sworn in as special constables, and the Christian inhabitants are forming themselves, under directions of a committee of public safety, into an armed volunteer corps, for the protection of the town and its environs, in which many adherents of the ex-Rajah are now residing; and it is conjectured would not fail to avail themselves of any attack to plunder and burn, for the purpose of increasing the commotion, and aiding his rather desperate cause.

"The Siamese are aware of the threatened invasion, and are said to be prepared for the reception of their invaders, and to be even desirous of commencing by a dash against the flotilla at Brooas, if permitted to pass through Pinang harbour for the purpose; which, it is believed, could not be sanctioned under existing treaties, without some direct and positive movements by the forces of Perak against the Siamese. All is in an uproar. The King of Quedah is cruising outside of the island with thirty, forty, or fifty armed boats; and his feelings, it is generally supposed, are very inimical to the government, who have shamefully cut him off, and befriended the Siamese."—These fears, it may be as well to add, though reasonable enough at the time, were not justified by the event.

CHAPTER III.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY.—Area.—Boundaries.—Physical Aspect. Climate.—Produce.—Concluding Remarks.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY is a strip of coast land, thirty-five miles long by about four in breadth, situated on the western side of the Malay Peninsula, immediately opposite to the island of Pinang, from which it is separated by a strait about two-and-a-half miles broad. It is computed to contain 140 square miles. On the north and east it is bounded by the Siamese province of Quedah, to the west by the strait that divides it from Pinang, and to the south by the Krian river, which flows between it and the Malay state of Perak. The boundaries with Quedah (now a province of Siam) as finally established by treaty, are as follows,—"On the north, from the mouth of the Muda river, (which is common to both nations) as far east as the brick pillar at Samattool; on the east, from the said brick pillar, standing on the south bank of that river, in a south-westerly direction, by a road cut through the jungle, and leading straight to a brick pillar

standing on the north bank of Pry river, and eastward of Aur Gading; thence down the middle of Pry river to Sungia Sinto Huler creek, at the S. W. extremity of Aur Gading reach; thence eastward up this creek to the landing place; and then by a road still eastward, to the north extremity of Permatang Passir ridge; thence in a straight line to Martajum hill, and from thence along the eastern Berator range of hills, to the brick pillar standing on the north bank of Kriah, and eastward of Bukit Toongal police-station."

Province Wellesley presents a gently undulating superficies, sloping gradually to the sea, with a few narrow strips of sandy soil, well adapted for the cultivation of the cocoa-nut, from which protrude a few hills of granite. Its surface is partially covered with forest. The soil is for the most part the detritus of the granite, with the exception of a few *sawahs*, (wet rice grounds,) where rice is cultivated in tolerable abundance. Here it becomes mingled of course with a very large proportion of decayed vegetable matter. Captain Low justly observes that the granite, which yields the best soil in disintegration, is that in which felspar and mica predominate; the former decomposing into a rich white clay, of a ferruginous hue, from the oxidation of the iron contained in the mica. Where quartz prevails,

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a sandy, gritty soil is the result. The richest soil lies in the mangrove flats, on the sea coast. That of Province Wellesley, he goes on to say, is by no means uniform in quality. The coast-line exhibits a narrow sandy belt of low land to the northward and eastward, while to the southward, the arable or habitable tracts are hemmed in, excepting in a few high points, by a broad mud flat, covered with mangrove trees, and flooded at high water. Beyond the sandy belt and mangroves are extensive alluvial tracts, under rice cultivation, alternating with ridges of light soil, running parallel to the coast. These ridges, in the centre of the province and towards the frontier, give place to irregularly shaped dry, alluvial plains, stretching north and south. A few hills of moderate elevation are scattered throughout the district. Of the alluvial plains and rice grounds, the soil is superior in fertility to that of lands of the same class in Pinang; on the hills, it is much the same in both. Extensive roads have been, and are now being made, to facilitate intercourse; and three large rivers, besides numerous creeks, afford ready access to many parts of the country.

The climates of Pinang and of Province Wellesley slightly differ in some respects from each other, but both are adapted to all the purposes

of intertropical agriculture. Hurricanes have never visited either of these places, although strong squalls have occasionally done considerable mischief to plantations. The evil has happily seldom extended beyond shaking fruit off the trees, prostrating a weak tree here and there, and breaking a few branches. Droughts of considerable duration occur usually at the end of four or five years, and severer ones at longer intervals. The planter, however, can always provide against any material loss from them by tanks and wells. A superabundance of rain is an inconvenience rather than a mischief; but it increases the cost of the cultivation by one-third. The island and the province owe the exuberant vegetation which covers them to the general humidity of their climates throughout the year. Rains likewise fall, occasionally, more copiously: thus rain fell almost every day betwixt October, 1789, and June, 1790; and rain fell on 145 days betwixt May, 1833, and April, 1834, inclusive, on Pinang plains; and 166 days on the Flag-staff Hill; and on 228 days in Province Wellesley. The atmosphere of Pinang is more loaded with aqueous vapour than that of Province Wellesley, because the latter is further removed from the vicinity of mountains than the former. The average temperature of Pinang is about one

degree higher during the day than that of the opposite coast. The dews are heaviest perhaps in Province Wellesley. The northern half of the Province is swept by the strong sea-breeze during the day, and generally by a cool land-wind at night. A hot wind is not known at either, nor within the straits. The climate of Province Wellesley generally is believed to be more healthy than that of Pinang Plain: this must be chiefly attributed to its being better ventilated. The best manifestation of the nature of the climates of both, as regards the feeling, is that, in Pinang a punkah is indispensable—in Province Wellesley its absence is not felt. The temperature, in the interior of the latter, was observed one day in January last, at 5 p. m. to be 65° of Fahr.

	Inc.	10ths.
From May, 1833, to April, 1834, inclusive, there fell on the Flag-staff Hill, on Pinang	116	6
Pinang Plain	65	5
Province Wellesley	79	1½

Mean temperature of Pinang Plain is about 80½° of Fahrenheit, that of Province Wellesley, 79½°.

The retreat of the sea from the coast of Province Wellesley has been already noticed in

speaking of the geology of Pinang. Its protecting position along the shore of the peninsula acts as a defensive barrier between Prince of Wales' Island and the Siamese territory. It supplies Pinang with cattle, poultry, and fruit. The principal products are rice, pepper, sugar, and cocoa-nuts. Of agricultural surplus produce, the gross annual value is estimated at 80,000 Spanish dollars; of rice and sugar alone, at about 60,000 Spanish dollars. The value of the lands under cultivation is estimated by Captain Low at about 300,000 Spanish dollars, including the real property attached.

The province is a dependency of Pinang, under the able superintendence of Captain Low, of the Madras service. Its population in 1824, amounted to 14,000; in 1831, to 25,000; in 1833, to 45,953; and in 1836, to 47,555, of whom about 43,000 are Malays; the rest Chinese, with a few Bengalis, Chuliahs and Siamese. This great increase is chiefly owing to the late cruelties practised by the Siamese on the Malay inhabitants of Quedah, which have compelled them to seek shelter in our territories: before the Siamese invasion of Quedah, in 1821, the population did not exceed 5000.

The principal settlement is at Bukkah, a place about five miles south of the Muda river, and the

residence of the British superintendent, Captain Low, according to whom, the province contains three large villages, consisting on an average of 300 houses each, and also numerous smaller ones of twenty or thirty houses each. There are twenty-one bazars, twenty-eight mosques of slight construction, fifty-nine native schools, in which from 500 to 600 boys are taught to read the Arabic character, and get the Koran by heart. As in Naning among the Malay population, so here, the number of males exceeds that of the females. Among the Chinese emigrants, the disproportion is of course still greater.

It was formerly intended to establish an arsenal and depôt for ship-building at Pinang, and a few fine vessels were actually launched: but, the interests of Bombay prevailing, the scheme was given up. In a commercial and maritime point of view, its fine harbour, formed by the Strait (nearly two and a half miles wide), that separates the north-east point of the island from the main land of Quedah, affords a safe anchorage for ships of the largest class. The capabilities it possesses for refitting, watering, and victualling shipping, its position on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, commanding the entrance into the China seas, combine to render Pinang a place of great resort: and although, since the establishment of Singa-

pore, the trade has somewhat fallen off, it not only still continues to be a valuable entrepôt for the produce of India, China, and Europe, but bids fair, by its own plantations of nutmegs and cloves, to render us independent of the spice islands, which we have given up to Holland. From proximity it is a convenient mart for the produce of Achin, the Pedir coast, and for the north-east parts of Sumatra, which would otherwise be carried into the Dutch ports on the western coast of Sumatra.

Politically speaking, Pinang forms a link in the prolonged chain of coast establishments that connect and strengthen our influence, north of the equator, from the coast of Africa to the shores of China; seated too near the line of demarcation between the Siamese and Malayan territories, and apart from both, it operates as a salutary check in restraining the arrogant encroachments of the former power on the possessions of the latter.

CHAPTER IV.

MALACCA.—Geographical Position.—Area.—Town of Malacca.—Boundaries.—Physical aspect and geology.—Climate.—Produce.—History.—Population.—Slaves, and Slave Debtors.—Trade.—Government.—Revenue.—Tenth on land produce.—Education among the Natives.—Anglo-Chinese College.—Concluding Observations.

THE town of Malacca is situated on the Malay peninsula, at the mouth of a small river flowing into the Straits of Malacca, in long. 102° 12′ east, lat. 2° 14′ north. The territory attached to it lies between the Malay states of Salangore, to the north-west, and that of Johore to the south-east. Interiorly, and to the east, it is bounded by Rumbowe and Johole; and on the west, by the Straits of Malacca. Its mean length is forty miles, and mean breadth, including Naning, twenty-five; comprising an area of about 1000 square miles.

Malacca derives its name, according to Malay history, from the Malacca tree (*Phyllanthus emblica*), and was founded by Raja Secunder (or Iscander) Shah, monarch of Singapore. The passage, in Leyden's translation, runs thus: "Raja

MAP
OF THE
MALACCA TERRITORY
INCLUDING
NANNING.
The Boundary Line is shewn thus
SALANGORE
Lingy River
MUAR
Cassang River
Dooyong River
Bandar
Rambow
Geoneng
G. Candang
G. Beraga
G. Tamping
Malee
Biniang
Beissoo
TABOO
Tellew
Sabang
Tabong
9 Miles to the Boundary Line
Mt. Ophir
Assahan
Chabow
Bookit Saboosa
Fort Lismore
Bookit Panchoor
Pondo Campai
Ayer Tatabow
Rhein
Songi Bidara
Ching Chino Yilang
Gassing
Ayer Panas
Ayer Bemban
Ayer Chirmen
Teheel
Rombia
Songe Putte
Malilang
Pambagian
B. Breeang
Pankalang Cotta
Songe Baroo
B. Geeng
B. Kayt Anang
Tanjong Bidara
Ching
Candan Cojong
C. Tenga
Malim
Pringit
Lebekke
B. Baroo
Bookit China
Pongoor
Milla
Pigo
Sirkam Hill
Tadueng
Martimb
Sarimba
Gadang
MALACCA
T. Ching
Condoor
Leesong Battoo
Belakian
Berampil
Bookow
Cattool
Geoneng Meriang vr. Mt. Ophir
0 1 2 3 4 5 10 15 Miles

Secunder Shah, returned to the shore of the sea, to the banks of a river named Bartam, where he hunted, standing himself to see the sport under the shade of a spreading tree. One of his dogs roused a white pelandok (moose deer), which attacking the dog drove it into the water. The Rajah was pleased, and said, 'This is a fine place, where the very pelandoks are full of courage. Let us found a city here.' To this the men assented, and the Rajah enquiring the name of the tree under which he was standing, was informed that it was the Malacca tree: 'Then,' said he, 'let the name of the city be called Malacca.'" Wilford rather fancifully derives the name from two Hindu words, *maha lanca*, and from the Arabic word, malakah.

The town of Malacca is divided by the river abovementioned, into two parts, connected by a bridge. On the left bank rises the verdant hill of St. Paul, surrounded by vestiges of an old Portuguese fort. Around its base lie the barracks, lines, and most of the houses of the military; the stadthouse, court-house, gaol, church, civil and military hospitals, the site of the old inquisition, convent, the police-office, the school, post-office, and master-attendant's office. On its summit stand the ruins of the ancient church of Our Lady del Monte, erected by Albuquerque, and the scene

of the labours and supposed miracles of that "Apostle of the East," St. Francis Xavier; also the light house and flag staff. A little to the south rises the hill of St. John's, and in the rear, that of St. Francis. On these eminences are still the remains of batteries erected by the Portuguese and Dutch, commanding the eastern and southern entrances to the town. Smaller knolls intervene, covered with the extensive cemeteries of the Chinese. The tombs are white, and constructed with much care, and surrounded by low walls of brick and chunam, in shape resembling a horse-shoe. About these hills are some delightful drives.

The bazars, and by far the greatest part of the town, are situated on the right bank of the river. Three streets run parallel to the coast, one continued beyond the rest for a considerable distance as far as Limbongan. In this are many substantial well-built houses, occupied by the Dutch gentry; by Portuguese, Chinese, Chuliahs, Kling, and Malay inhabitants; here too are the Anglo-Chinese College, the Mission Chapel, the principal Chinese temple, and the two large mosques.

The view of Malacca from the Roads is extremely picturesque. It has the appearance of being situated in the bend of a crescent or bay; the southern horn of which is formed by a chain

of beautiful islets, called the Aguadas, or Water Isles, stretching out seawards from the coast. On the north side, the shore trends to the west, terminating in an elevated and well wooded point called Tanjong Kling. A few other islets stud the shore. The first objects that strike the eye are a cluster of trees crowning the summit of St. Francis, the Star Fort on St. John's to the south, the light-house, and ruinous church on St. Paul's, and the white edifices that skirt its base, stretching along the sea-shore, and gradually lost in the thick grove of cocoa-nut trees that covers the dwellings of the Portuguese, Chinese, and Malays, in the suburbs of Bander Ilir, and Ujong Passir. In the back ground of this pleasing view, rise the hills of Bukit Bertam, Bruang, Panchur, &c. To the north, in the distance, frown the mountains of Rumbowe and Srimenanti, and far away to the east the triple peak of Ophir, celebrated for its gold, shoots into the sky with softened outline. The whole "paysage" is clothed with the most refreshing verdure. The anchoring ground in the Roads is so secure, that, though large vessels are obliged to lie at a distance of two miles from the shore, accidents have been rarely known to happen. Native craft anchor much nearer; under the lee of one of the islets close in-shore.

The ancient boundaries of Malacca, according

to the Sejara Malayu, in the time of Mohammed Shah I., Sultan of Malacca, were Bruwas Ujong Carang on the west, and Tringanu on the east.

When the Dutch took Malacca in 1641, the boundaries, as fixed by them and their ally the king of Johore, were from the mouth of the Lingie river on the north, to the mouth of the Cassang river on the south. As they stand at present, the Lingie river separates it from Salangore, and the Cassang from Johore. In Valentyn's map of the peninsula, the tract or territory, included in the cordon surrounding the "Maleytsche Kust," extends from the right bank of the Liassa or Lingie river, down to Rio Formoso or the Battu Pahat river, comprising both the Cassang and Muar rivers. The boundaries of Malacca with Rumbowe, are the Rumbowe river, Qualla Sungie Jernee, Bukit Bertam, Bukit Jelatang, Bukit Putoos, Jeerat Gunjie, Lubo Talan, Duson Feringie, Duson Kapar, Ulu Songa, and Bukit Puttoos, with Johole the boundary,* is a line extending from Bukit Puttoos through Battang Malacca to Mount Ophir.

* Since writing the above, the boundaries of Malacca, with Johole, have been fixed as follows: — From Bukit Puttoos to "Salumba Kroh," thence to Lubo Palang, thence to Lubo Penawen, following the right bank of the stream down towards Malacca. The left bank is the territory of Johole. This is the boundary between Malacca

Mr. Martin describes the sea-coast as rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese use for places of sepulture, and the interior as mountainous. These statements require some modification. The few remarks I shall make, are deduced from a personal observation of the whole line of coast from the mouth of the Cassang to that of the Lingie river, the extreme limits north and south of the Malacca territory, and from excursions made to many parts of the interior. From Malacca, northwards, to the Lingie river, the shore line consists of two or three long indentations, the prominent parts of which are caused by rocky swells, descending from the interior to the coast. These are connected by prolonged curved sweeps of a flat sandy shore. Off the prominences, the coast is always rugged, owing to the action of the waves upon the rocky swells just mentioned, which are continued to unknown distances under the sea, and every now and then emerge again in shape of reefs or islets. From Malacca southwards to the Cassang river, the coast is less undulating and rocky—in many parts is very low and swampy, and covered with mangroves, and with other

and Johole, for instance, Rekkan and Ladang, and Kadaka and Nascha, all these campongs are under the dominion of Johole.—Vide Appendix, No. 17.

aquatic trees. The islets along the coast are not, strictly speaking, cavernous: overhanging granitic rocks, and masses piled one on another, sometimes form crevices and hollows which do not deserve to be called caves; and which, though generally used by the Malays as places of burial, are rarely sought for any such purpose by the Chinese. The coast abounds with fine fish. The adjacent country is lower and flatter than the inland parts, where the surface is varied by a succession of rising grounds and watery plains. The former are clothed with forest-trees and often with fruit-trees, the property of such villages as are situated upon them; the intervening flats form narrow swamps, winding about the bases of the rising grounds, and are converted into Sawahs. There are no regular ranges of hills in the territory subject to Malacca. Hills, detached and in small groups, like those at Panchur, occur. Thermal sulphureous springs are to be met with at Ayer Pannas, about fifteen miles east of Malacca, at Sabang, and at Londi in Naning: but no volcanic products. Generally, the hills are of granite, with the exception of a few near the sea-coast, which are of laterite, overlying the granite. Specimens of hornblende rock have been brought to me from a hill, a little south of Malacca. The islets on the coast are

of granite, of various kinds, with white, red, and green felspar. In all, the felspar appears to be predominant, and mica deficient.

The soil in the rising grounds is reddish, and is formed by the decomposition of the subjacent laterite. Over it sometimes lies a thin layer of vegetable mould. In the flats it consists almost entirely of decayed vegetable matter, mixed with silicious particles, washed by the rains from the sloping banks that bound them. Beds of porcelain earth are sometimes found interspersed with it, at a little distance below the surface, giving to the contiguous parts an ashy grey colour. The soil of Malacca is remarkably fertile, and in many places capable of producing excellent nutmegs and cloves. Rice is grown in abundance, the ground frequently yielding more than two hundred-fold. The supply of water, both from springs and rivulets, is easy and plentiful. The chief rivers are the Lingie, the Malacca river, the Cassang, the Sungie, Baru, and the Duyong. The first is navigable for small brigs ten or twelve miles from the mouth. They take their rise among the hills in the interior, and empty themselves into the Straits of Malacca. The mouths of these rivers are, more or less, obstructed by bars and sand-banks. Their sides are generally low, in many places swampy, and covered with forest. Though

infested by alligators, their waters abound with fish, on which, and on fruit and rice, the Natives subsist. Malayan villages are almost invariably built upon the banks of these streams, or upon those of some of their tributaries.

The climate of Malacca is justly celebrated for its salubrity; and certainly preferable to that either of Pinang or of Singapore; though, as is the case with the climates of all countries near the equator, it is found fault with, not unreasonably, on account of its moistness and occasional closeness. The extremes, denoted by the register of a thermometer kept in the open air, fifteen miles inland of Malacca, at Fort Lismore, in 1832-3, were 70° Fahr. at 6 A. M., and 108° at 2 P. M. In the shade the thermometer ranged from 72° to 85°. There is but little change in the barometer, which, during the year, varies between 30° 3′ and 29° 83′. Excessive heat and cold are not encountered here, as on the Peninsula of India, nor any scorching land-winds; hot nights seldom occur. There are regular land and sea breezes: the former pass large tracts of forests, extending over a narrow peninsula, that juts out far into the main, between the sea of China on one side, and the Strait on the other. They are thus entirely free from the parching dryness so painful in the land-winds of India, which traverse arid plains or

sheets of heated sand. Malacca is but slightly affected by the monsoons that prevail in the Bay of Bengal. The rain falls at intervals of a few days throughout the year, keeping the face of the country in a state of perpetual verdure. The rainy season, if such it can be called, continues from September to December and January: from this month to March is the coldest time of the year. The violent squalls, termed Sumatras, prevail during the S. W. monsoon, which commences in May, and terminates in October. They seldom last longer than three hours, often not one. They rise suddenly, attended with thunder and lightning, and with floods of rain. Colonel Farquhar states, in proof of the salubrity of the climate, that the average number of casualties in the garrison, from diseases contracted at Malacca for seven years, did not amount to quite two in the hundred. Instances of longevity are numerous, not only in the native population, but among the Dutch and Portuguese inhabitants.

At the latter end of November, 1819, the Cholera Morbus first made its appearance at Malacca, and continued to the end of the year. It fell upon the Chuliah and Malay tribes, then upon the Portuguese and Chinese, and finally upon the Native and European troops. It was remarked, at the time, that its ravages were greatest among

the population of marshy and confined situations, among aged persons living chiefly on vegetables and fruits, and among persons of feeble constitutions. During its height, the casualties varied from five to fifteen daily. According to the report of Dr. Sanger, the Dutch Chirurgyn Majoor, the malady here exhibited symptoms different from its usual characteristics; for it was accompanied with local spasms in various parts of the body, regulated by the age of the patient. The principal appearances, shewn on dissection, were inflammation of the membranes encircling the lobes of the cerebrum and cerebellum, water in the ventricles tinged with blood, inflammation of the intestines, stomach full of water, and dark colour of the blood in the lungs. From Dr. Sanger's report, it is not clear that the spinal chord was ever examined. He describes two forms of the disorder; one began almost always with vomiting, sometimes pains in the bowels, giddiness in the head; the whole body deadly cold, and the pulse imperceptible. The second, he says, was still more alarming, and accompanied with severe cramps, and sometimes foaming at the mouth.

The treatment was a large dose of calomel (20 grs.) and 60 drops of laudanum, with a little brandy, followed up by the hot-bath; warm port-wine, and putting the head under water, were found

to be of essential service in the second form of the disease.

The produce of Malacca is principally rice, jaggery, sago, pepper, rattans, timber, vegetables, fruits, poultry, and cattle, a great proportion of which is exported to Singapore. The quantity of rice was formerly scarcely sufficient for four months' consumption; the inhabitants were consequently dependent on Java, Bengal, and Achin, for this necessary of life. It has, however, increased considerably of late years, and the last crop (1835) was equal to two-thirds of the annual consumption. The bulk of the rice of Malacca is the produce of the wet lands or sawahs—a small quantity only is grown on the ladangs, or dry-land plantations. The causes of the scanty produce of this staple necessary of life exist not in the climate and soil, but in the inaptitude of the Malays to improve the advantages, which nature has bestowed on them with so bounteous a hand, and in the restrictions of the former Dutch government. These, Colonel Farquhar states, were carried to such lengths that "previous to the capture of Malacca, in 1795, no grain of any kind was permitted to be raised within the limits of the Malacca territory; thus rendering the whole of the population dependent on the island of Java for all their supplies." Every possible

encouragement has been judiciously given by the local government to cultivation; and it is to be expected that, ere long, Malacca will not only be able to produce sufficient for her own consumption, but also for that of Pinang and Singapore.

No person who has seen the forest of cocoa-nut-trees that overtop "with feathery shade" the suburbs of Malacca, can avoid being struck by the singular spectacle.

Upon the produce of these trees, and of a few patches of rice-ground, as well as by fishing, the greater portion of the poorer classes subsist. The annual produce of each tree is estimated at one dollar. The following is a calculation of the expense incurred in planting and rearing 7,000 trees at Malacca. It must be borne in mind, the tree is seven years old before it yields profit to the cultivator.

FIRST OUTLAY.

	Sa.Rs.	
Purchase money of 100 orlongs of land for plantation	631	8
Price of 7,000 nuts.....	152	0
Coolies, carts, buffalos, &c.....	152	0
S. Rs.	935	8

ANNUAL COST.

	Sa. Rs.
10 Coolies, at 6 Rs. each per mensem...	720
Tear and wear of implements, buildings, and carts	50
Overseers, at 15 Rs. per mensem.....	180
Quit-rent average and contingencies.....	200
S. Rs.	1150

Thus the total outlay required the first seven years, for a plantation of 7,000 trees, with interest at five per cent, will be, at Malacca, in round numbers, about 9,800 s. rupees, while at Pinang it would, with interest, amount to about 13,232 s. rupees.

Besides the articles just enumerated, a considerable quantity of dammer, ebony, jaggery, and a small quantity of nutmegs, cloves, gambier, coffee, gold-dust, tin and ivory, lakka, aloe-wood, and bees'-wax are produced. The forests abound with timber applicable to the building of vessels and houses, such as the murbowe, medanketanahan, the bilian, the medang-sa-miniak. The ranghas, or red wood; the korantye, a fine-grained yellow wood; and the barumbong. The three last are used in making furniture, &c. An immense variety of delicious fruits are cultivated, and grow spontaneously at Malacca, in addition

to those already enumerated as the produce of Pinang, all of which are to be met with here in perfection.

Malacca was founded, in the middle of the 13th century, by a colony of Malays, from Singapore, under the sovereign of that island, Sri Iscander Shah, who had been driven thence by an invasion of the Javanese from Majapahit. From its advantageous situation, in the highway of eastern commerce, it soon became a large and flourishing city; the population of which, if we may place any reliance on native historians, amounted, in the 15th century, to 190,000 inhabitants.

Its political influence extended almost over the entire peninsula, and over the islands on the coasts. The attention of the Portuguese was early attracted to this emporium of the eastern seas, and in 1511 it fell, after a brave defence, into the hands of their leader Alphonso Albuquerque. Its Malayan sovereign, Sultan Mahomed Shah II., fled to Johore, a place situated near the extremity of the peninsula; where, and at the island of Bintang, he formed a kingdom, still having a nominal existence. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1641, when it fell into the hands of the Dutch, and of their ally the King of Johore, a lineal descendant from the

Malayan kings of Malacca, after a siege of six months' duration.

The Dutch retained possession till August, 1795, when it surrendered to the expedition under command of Major Brown and Captain Newcome.* In November, 1795, the British

* The particulars of the surrender of Malacca and its dependencies to the British forces, under the command of Captain Newcome, of the Orpheus, and Major Brown, of the East India Company's Service, are contained in a short letter from the former to Commodore Rainier, dated at that place, August the 25th, 1795. The terms of capitulation were nearly the same, but with greater indulgence than those granted to the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope. As the British squadron entered the port, a Dutch ship, which had run a-ground, fired at the Resistance, of forty-four guns, Captain Edward Pakenham; this was returned, and the ship struck her colours; the fort also fired a few shots at the troops on their landing, and surrendered on the opening of our fire: for which acts of hostility the settlement, as well as the ships in the harbour, were taken possession of as the property of the captors, subject to the decision of His Britannic Majesty. In the capitulation it was agreed that, the commanding-officer of the British troops was to command the fort; and in consequence of the expenses incurred by the King of Great Britain in equipping the armament, the British garrison was to be maintained at the expense of the Dutch, who were to raise a sum in the settlement for that purpose. The British commandant was also to have the keys of the garrison, and to give the parole; all military stores of every description were to be placed under his control; the armed vessels belonging to the government of Malacca to be put likewise under the orders of the British government; the English and Dutch flags were to be displayed on proper occasions, on two flag-staves in the fort. The settlements of Riou and Peru (Rhio and Perak?) being dependencies of Malacca, were ordered to put themselves under the protection of the British government.—(*Brenton's Naval History*, vol. I. 360.)

occupied it for the Prince of Orange * This, however, has since been disputed by the Dutch

* Extract of General Orders from the Garrison Orderly Book.

" Malacca, 17th Nov., 1795, Tuesday.

"The Dutch troops having taken the oath of allegiance to His Britannic Majesty George the Third, now in strict alliance with His Serene Highness William the Fifth, Prince of Orange, the same respect and deference is to be paid to the Dutch officers and men, when on or off duty, as is paid to the British officers and men, by whom they are to be considered and treated on all occasions as brother-soldiers in one and the same allied service."

No. 2.

" Malacca, 6th Dec., 1795, Sunday.

" By His Excellency Commodore Rainier.

"It having been deemed expedient by the Right Honourable the President in Council of Fort Saint George, Peter Thomas Rainier, Esq., commander of His Majesty's squadron, and Colonel John Braithwaite, commander of the army on the coast of Coromandel, to disapprove of that part of the articles made by Captain Henry Newcome and Major Archibald Brown, to continue Abraham Couperis, Esq., governor, with his council, in the Government and direction of all matters of a civil and commercial nature, and in conformity to the instructions of the Right Honourable the President in Council, the Government of Malacca having been dissolved, Major Archibald Brown is appointed governor, until the pleasure of His Majesty, or that of the Right Honourable the President in Council of Fort Saint George, or of the Commander-in-chief in India, be known, with full powers to discharge the duties of that office; and in case of his absence, the officer commanding the troops at Malacca, for the time being, is to assume his place as Governor, and consider himself responsible for the good conduct and management of all matters under his control and discretion."

No. 3.

Extract from Orders, dated Malacca, 14th March, 1796.

"Lieutenant-Colonel Falson, Commanding the Forces and settle-

commissioners in 1818, who affirm, that the English considered Malacca a place taken by arms. The rule of the Portuguese and Dutch, as their own records evince, was not at all popular among their Malayan subjects, or the neighbouring states; and they experienced great difficulty in retaining their hold on the peninsula and the navigation of the Straits, both on account of

ment of Malacca, in conformity to the orders of the Right Honourable the President in Council of Fort Saint George, publishes the following Extracts from these Orders, under date the 1st February, 1796.

"We have now to advise you of our resolutions upon certain points, referred to us by Admiral Rainier and Major Brown, relative to appointments and allowances.

"FIRST CIVIL ESTABLISHMENT.

"The Dutch Government being totally at an end, we direct that all *emoluments*, heretofore enjoyed by the civil servants of the Dutch East India Company, under whatsoever denomination, do cease; and that, from henceforward, no one on the civil establishment be paid beyond what may be absolutely deemed necessary for his actual subsistence, for which the wages and diet-money, drawn under the supreme government, must be considered at all times sufficient for those not employed in the offices of Government, and never be exceeded.

"To such as may be publicly employed, you will proportion their allowances to the labour and responsibility of their respective offices. But no one, whatever be his employment, must receive more than double the wages and diet-money granted under the late Government.

"On your arrival at Malacca, you will call for settlements, showing the wages and diet-money drawn under the late Government, and be guided by the foregoing regulations, forwarding to us an account of all allowances paid by your order."

internal rebellions and external invasion, particularly from the then-powerful state of Achin.

Malacca was to have been restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens, in 1802; but war recommenced (May, 1803) before the transfer was made, and the Dutch falling again under the gripe of France, it consequently remained in the hands of the British until 1818. The law of Holland continued to be administered, and the decrees of the courts of justice passed in the name of their High Mightinesses. In 1805, government entertained the idea of abandoning Malacca. At that time the public property there was estimated, with a view of ascertaining the extent of the sacrifice, by the British resident, Colonel Farquhar, as follows:

	Spa. dol.
Fortifications	700,000
Lands and houses	50,000
Rice and provisions	8,566
	758,566

In 1807 the fort, valued as above at 700,000 dollars, was destroyed, by order of the British government, at the enormous expense of 260,000 rupees. The demolition of the public buildings, and the total abandonment of Malacca had also been determined upon, with the strange view of

transferring the trade and population of the place to Pinang, and of rendering it utterly useless to other European powers, in the event of its ever falling into their possession.

These objects were defeated chiefly by the patriotic conduct of the inhabitants of Malacca (who to a man, refused to be removed to Pinang, and rejected, with contempt, the offers of a free passage for themselves and families), and partly by the strong representations of Sir Stamford Raffles, regarding the political and commercial importance of the place itself, and the futility of the means employed to attain the desired end. The eyes of Government being opened by these considerations, and under the influence, probably, of some, doubts as to the justice and honesty of destroying the property of another nation, held in trust by us, the farther destruction of the public buildings was stopped, and Malacca continued a British settlement. Fragments of the massive walls of its fort remain to this day, a lasting monument of these abortive projects.

On the 21st of September, 1818, Malacca, agreeably to the treaty of Vienna, was given over by the British Resident, Colonel Farquhar, to the Dutch Commissioners, Rear Admiral Walterbeck, and Timmermann Thyssen. Events in Europe had prevented this fulfilment of the treaty; until,

in the latter end of 1816, a Government order was issued, dated 2nd November, directing the restoration of Malacca to his Netherlands Majesty. The Dutch did not, however, immediately take advantage of this order: occupying Rhio, near the southern entrance of the Straits, and several advantageous positions on the coast of Sumatra, they were at first in no hurry to dispossess us of Malacca, deteriorated as it had been, both as a military post and a commercial mart, by the increasing trade of Pinang, and by the demolition of its fortifications. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, Malacca was too important a place to be allowed to remain long in our hands, and accordingly Commissioners were deputed, not only to receive over the place, but to repay whatever extra expenses had been incurred by the British Government in retaining possession since the date of the order for restoration, according to treaty, viz. from the 2nd November, 1816, to the 21st September, 1818, when the order was executed.*

* Garrison Orders.—By Major William Farquhar, Resident and Commandant, Malacca, Saturday, 19th Sept. 1818.

"Monday next, the 21st instant, being the day appointed for restoring this settlement to His Netherlands Majesty, the following ceremony will be observed on the occasion:—

"The British colours to be hoisted at sun-rise. All the troops in garrison off duty to parade at their respective barracks, at seven o'clock in the morning, from whence they will remove to the vicinity

These expenses amounted to Spanish dollars 28,022, and 87 cents.

Before the Dutch colours were hoisted, Colonel Farquhar made claim for indemnification to the British Government on account of the extra expenses incurred in retaining possession of Malacca for the Stadtholder since 1795 to 1818,

of the Flag-staff on St. Paul's Hill, when they will take up a position in open ranks on the right of the Dutch troops. The civil and military officers not on duty with corps to assemble at the Government House in full dress at seven o'clock. The British Resident and Dutch Commissioners, with their respective staffs, public officers, &c. will proceed in procession to the spot allotted the troops in the vicinity of the Flag-staff. On their arrival there, they will be received by the troops with presented arms. Drums beating two rolls.

"The British Proclamation will then be read by the Resident, and the same repeated in the Chinese and Malay languages, after which the master attendant will begin to lower the union on the royal salute commencing from the battery, and continue to do so gradually until it reaches the ground. The troops, during the lowering of the British flag, will again present arms. Drums beating God save the King.

" The Dutch men-of-war in the roads will also fire a royal salute whilst the British flag is descending. The British troops will then take up a new position on the left of the Dutch line, when the Proclamation in Dutch will be read, and explained by the Commissioners or their secretary.

" The Dutch colours will then be hoisted full mast, under a royal salute from the British battery, as likewise from the Dutch squadrons.

" The troops paying the same compliment of presenting arms on the hoisting of the Dutch colours as they did on the lowering of the British. Drums beating a Dutch march. After which the troops

the expenses prior to 1805 to lie over for future consideration. These claims were preferred on the following grounds, viz.—that

The settlement had, ever since its first establishment, in 1795, enjoyed the benefit of the national law of Holland. That the expenses of this arrangement, as well as those incurred in providing for many late local Dutch *employés*, would

will march off to their respective barracks. The ceremony being thus concluded, the whole of the garrison guards will be immediately relieved by the Dutch troops."

PROCLAMATION.

"Whereas, by the first article of the treaty between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of the Netherlands, dated the 13th August, 1816,

"It is stipulated, that His Britannic Majesty should restore to the Prince Sovereign of the United Netherlands the colonies, factories, and establishments which were possessed by Holland at the commencement of the late war, viz. on the 1st January, 1803, with certain exceptions therein stated.

"And whereas, in pursuance of the provisions of the above recited article, their Excellencies, Rear Admiral Walterbeck and J. T. Timmermann Thyssen, Esq., have arrived at Malacca, and have produced their full powers for receiving charge of the said settlement, on behalf of His Majesty the King of the Netherlands.

"It is accordingly hereby proclaimed, that Major Farquhar, the British Resident and Commandant at Malacca, has this day delivered over charge of the said settlement to their Excellencies the Dutch Commissioners accordingly.

"Published at Malacca this 21st day of September, 1818, by order of the Honourable the Governor in Council of Prince of Wales's Island.

(Signed) "WM. FARQUHAR,
"Resident and Commandant."

not have been submitted to, under any other than a temporary possession of the place. That all the decrees of the Courts of Justice had continued to be passed in the name of their High Mightinesses, and that none of the former Dutch civil or military functionaries were retained but such as professed a strict adherence to the cause of the Stadtholder.

To these arguments the Dutch commissioners replied :—

1st.—That the claims were ill founded, because they had been provided for by the Treaties dated 13th August, 1814.

2nd.—That Malacca had been considered by the English Government a place taken by arms.

3rd.—That the contract, made between the government and council of Malacca and the commandant of the military and naval forces of the English, had been fully disapproved by Lord Hobart, Governor of Madras, inasmuch as on the arrival of Admiral Rainier, at the commencement of December 1795, the colours of Holland had been lowered; and that, the governor in council, commandant, and the officers and men, who refused to enter the English service, had been transported to Madras as prisoners; and that, even in contradiction to the pleasure of his Britannic Majesty, following the orders of Lord

Henry Dundas to the Governor of Madras, presented by Admiral Rainier, the public property had been seized and sold as conquered property, (gained by conquest.) They also added " Si ce, que nous venons d'alleguer, ne vous parassait pas dèja suffisant pour demontrer l'illegalité de votre demande, nous vous prierons de vouloir jetter les yeux sur l'état de décadence et de deperissement ou se trouve, dans ce moment, Malacca, et nous serions en doit de vous demander, si l'on trouve un seul vestige, qui puisse indiquer que Malacca a été conservé et gardé pour les Hollandais. Une preuve evidente au contraire, c'est que le fort, a été entièrement demolé, et le tout si negligé qu'on ne pourra, qu'au moyen de tres fortes depenses, etablir le plus petit point de defense même contre les natifs du pays."

With regard to the permission, granted by the English Government to the Dutch employés to remain at Malacca, and at the places which have been given them, they observed that they were free after the taking of Malacca, particularly after the lowering of the Dutch flag, to repair to Java, where the government would certainly have taken care to provide for them. It was perfectly optional to them to take the places government had thought proper to bestow on them. Colonel Farquhar observed, that he did not consider the

disapproval by the Madras government of certain measures, adopted by our naval and military forces after the surrender of Malacca, in establishing a mixed government, and in allowing both the English and Dutch colours to be displayed in the fortress, should warrant a conclusion that the settlement was no longer held in possession for his Serene Highness; and even the very act of demolishing the fortifications might have had the previous sanction and concurrence of the Stadtholder then residing in England. After a lengthy correspondence between the commissioners, they came to the following arrangement on the 19th September, 1818.

"It is hereby certified that the following articles of agreement have been finally settled by their excellencies, Rear-Admiral Walterbeck, and J. S. Timmermann Thyssen, Esq., commissioners of His Majesty the king of the Netherlands on one side, and Major William Farquhar, resident and commandant of Malacca, acting on behalf of the British government on the other, viz.—

1st. — That the claims preferred by Major Farquhar in his letter under date the 7th inst. to be reimbursed the actual amount of the extra expenses incurred by the British government in keeping possession of Malacca for his Serene Highness the Stadtholder, since August 1795, be

submitted to the future consideration of our respective governments.

2nd.—That the claim made by Major Farquhar in his letter of the 9th inst. to be reimbursed the actual amount of extra expenses incurred by the British government in keeping possession of this settlement from the date of the government order, directing it to be restored to his Netherlands Majesty, (viz, the 2nd of November, 1816,) up to the 2nd of the present month, amounting to Spanish dollars, 28,022, 87 cents, be defrayed here by the Dutch authorities, after the deduction of Spanish drs. 5,601⅓ admitted as a counter-claim on the part of the Dutch government.

3rd.—That the public buildings of every description, which belonged to the British government at the time of signing the Treaty of Vienna, on the 13th August, 1814, be restored to the Dutch authorities, free of expense.

4th.—That such public buildings as have been purchased or erected by the British, subsequent to the signing of the aforesaid Treaty of Peace, shall be taken over by the Dutch government at their original cost.

5th.—That all the ordnance on the public works, with their ammunition, as per list No. 1, be transferred to the Dutch government, free of all charge.

6th.—That all the remaining ordnance and mili-

tary stores in the arsenal and magazine, be made over to the Dutch government, at such prices as have been agreed to.

Malacca and its dependencies remained in possession of Holland till March 1st, 1825, when they were finally ceded to Great Britain, together with the Dutch establishments on the continent of India, in exchange for the British settlements on Sumatra, Bencoolen, &c. At the time of this cession, Malacca became a dependency of Bengal; but since 1826, it has continued to form part of the Straits government.

The last census (July 1836), gives the total population of Malacca and its territory, including Naning, at 37,706 souls, of whom the greater proportion are Malays. In 1818, it amounted only to 25,000, giving an increase, in eighteen years, of 12,706.

CENSUSES OF THE RESIDENCY OF MALACCA, SINCE 1826.

	1826.	1827.	1829.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.
Europeans..	..	*245	..	..	..	..	..
Malays and Battas....	16,121	21,081	19,765	18,296	20,463	21,575	21,220
Chinese	4,125	5,200	4,797	4,764	4,143	4,613	4,102
Battas.....	..	..	357	511	293	235	317
Hindoos....	862	892	894	886	812	838	860
Chuliahs ..	1,475	1,578	1,900	1,868	1,536	1,989	2,273
Siamese....	..	..	20	23	50	145	230
Christians ..	2,236	2,445	2,078	1,921	1,799	2,227	2,389
Caffres	..	..	16	43	4	4	2
Arabs.....	..	..	36	94	36	32	72
Bengalis ..	..	..	36	43	55	133	88
Javanese ..	..	..	..	9	69	117	252
Total	24,819	31,441	29,899	28,458	29,260	31,908	31,825
Naning	3,686	†	4,593	4,671	5,079	5,329	5,881
Grand Total	28,505	31,441	34,492	33,129	34,339	37,237	37,706

Of this population the town of Malacca comprises about one-third, all the Hindoos and Chuliahs (natives from the Coromandel coast), Caffres, Arabs, Bengalis, and Javanese, and by far the greater proportion of Chinese. In 1832, its population was as follows:—

* Europeans in every other year are included under those "professing christianity."

† The total, 31,441 must, I conceive, include the population of Naning.

Malays	3,071
Chinese	3,862
Battas	309
Hindoos	886
Chuliahs	1,868
Siamese	14
Christians	1,921
Caffres	43
Arabs	94
Bengalis	43
Javanese	9
Total	12,120

Under the head of Christians are comprised the English, Dutch, Portuguese, and natives converted to Christianity. The English, Dutch, and Natives are mostly protestants; the Portuguese, catholics. Few English reside at Malacca, except the civil and military officers of government, and some missionaries. The Dutch form a highly respectable and wealthy class of the community. They are mostly the descendants of the officers of the old Dutch governments; who preferred, on the place being given up to the English, to remain without employment, rather than quit Malacca for Batavia, (the capital of the possessions of Holland, in India,) and are much at-

tached to the soil. Some of them find employment in the government offices, others are engaged in commerce and agriculture, while a few live on the annual sum paid by government for the transfer of their landed rights.

The Portuguese, as in other parts of India, have greatly degenerated. They are an improvident and impoverished class, subsisting principally by fishing, and upon the produce of the little gardens and enclosures attached to their houses. Many of them are employed as servants to gentlemen, and as writers in offices. They retain most of the pride, without the industry and energy of their ancestors; but under all these disadvantages, appear to be a light-hearted happy race.

The number of Siamese, Arabs, Javanese, and Bengalis, fluctuates; few of them being permanently resident at Malacca. Many of the Battas, Caffres, and their descendants, are slaves.

The Malays that live in the town of Malacca are principally those engaged in native commerce, sailors, boatmen, wealthy Hajis, and their connexions; slave debtors, &c. The agricultural classes reside in the country, in their native villages, under their respective panghulus or headmen; of whom, according to Malayan

usage, there ought to be one to every forty-four families.

Their houses are far better than those of the natives of India: they are constructed of wooden frames, raised from the ground on posts, the timbers of which are so nicely adapted, as to admit of being taken down and put together again with perfect ease. The sides are of the bark of large trees; thatch of Atap, and floors of split nibong, called lantei. Each house is surrounded by an orchard of fruit-trees, a source of profit and sustenance to the owner. The villages are straggling, and scarcely to be distinguished from the jungle, save by an experienced eye, on account of the overshadowing fruit-trees.

The Malays are Mohammedans, of the Shafihi sect: they are naturally strongly imbued with a love of liberty, and are of a proud and punctilious disposition. They are morbidly alive to any slight or insult. By attention to his little prejudices, and by appealing to his reason, a Malay may be easily led, where force and compulsion would produce nothing but stubbornness and rebellion. The Malay, in his commercial dealings, is much more honest than the natives of China and of India, by whom, however, he is far surpassed in industry and perseverance.—

Those of the interior are bred up to agriculture: even their chiefs, as well as their wives and children, are not unfrequently seen working, with their own hands, in the rice-plantations and fields. They are fully capable, under a good government, and under laws suitable to their social wants and national character, of being converted into an useful and profitable class of subjects to the state. (For a more detailed account of the Malay population, their religion and customs, see Chapters V. and XX.)

To that useful class, the Chinese, I have already adverted, (Chap. I. p. 29.) As a proof of the absurdity of saddling Malacca with the heavy expense of a king's court of judicature, and in testimony of the general character of its population, I will quote the following extract from Colonel Farquhar's statement made in 1818 in favour of the usual conduct of the inhabitants, and declaring that, although there was no king's court of judicature, atrocious crimes were by no means common amongst them; and that, during the whole time the English have had possession of Malacca (now upwards of twenty-one years) one man only, a Batta slave, had been executed; and that it was but doing common justice to the community at large to state, that it would be difficult to find in any place, containing the same

number of inhabitants, a more quiet and orderly set of people."

It will be proper here to remark, that the population of Malacca includes a few slaves, descendants of slaves, and a class of bondmen called debtors. The slaves and their descendants are chiefly the hereditary property of the old Dutch, Portuguese, and Malay families in Malacca. The debtors are persons who have bound themselves, with their families, often for trifling sums, to serve their creditors until the liquidation of the debt, receiving from them food and clothes. It often happens that debtors thus serving, not only never clear the original debt, but by degrees add to it; and thus become virtually slaves themselves, and their offspring for ever. This species of bondage is allowed by the Malayan laws, and prevails universally in Malayan states. Parents and guardians are also in the habit of pledging their children. The slaves are generally Malays, Battaks, and the descendants of the females by a variety of fathers.

It would seem that the attention of the Dutch governor at Malacca was particularly called to the condition of the slaves, by an order from the Governor-general of Netherlands India, Baron Van der Capellen, in October 1819, for their immediate registry, with the main view of facilitat-

ing the levy of a tax denominated "head money of slaves." The enlightened governor of Malacca carried his enquiries a little farther than his Excellency exactly wished, and finding that some of the inhabitants, contrary to the act of the British Parliament for the abolition of slavery, had, during the English government at Malacca, imported slaves from various Malay states, particularly from Borneo and Siac, and had evaded its provisions by receiving nominal debtors, though virtual slaves, from the masters of native craft, belonging to these states, trading at the port of Malacca, he ordered many of these bonds to be cancelled, and on the 3rd November, 1819, published a proclamation* declaring that whosoever should take

* (Translation from the Dutch.)

"PROCLAMATION.

"We, John Samuel Timmermann Thyssen, Governor of Malacca and its dependencies. To all to whom these presents may come greeting.

"Whereas it has been represented to us that, in consequence of the promulgation of the act of the British Parliament in January 1813, wherein the importation of slaves into settlements belonging to his majesty the King of England is strictly forbidden, many inhabitants have been convicted of receiving from the Nacodas of prows, slaves brought to this place from Borneo, Siac, and other places, not as slaves, but as debtors, a deed as heinous as carrying on a slave trade, because these individuals are never placed by their creditors in such circumstances as to enable them to redeem themselves, but on the contrary, in case of sickness or demise, the debtor's nearest relation observes that the debt is greatly enhanced, because the expenses which

over a debtor into his service should be fined 100 guilders, and imprisoned six months. Parents and guardians guilty of pledging their children, were made liable to be put in irons for a period not exceeding one year, on the public roads. Persons receiving them in pledge, were amenable to a similar punishment, and to a forfeit of the

the creditor has incurred on the above casualties are added to the original amount.

"We have therefore, after mature deliberation, determined to regulate the state of debtors, in an equitable manner, like that of slaves; and we bring to the notice of every person or persons, that whosoever should in future be found guilty of taking over a debtor and entertaining him in his service, or after the expiration of this month, should privately harbour a debtor, shall be fined one hundred guilders, and imprisoned for six months upon his own expense.

"That by enquiry we have ascertained that several persons were in the habit of pledging their children, it is hereby further made known, that any parents or guardians found guilty of having pawned their children or wards, shall be liable to be publicly punished and put in irons, for a period not exceeding one year, on the public roads. The person laying out a sum of money for this purpose, shall be liable to the same punishment, and forfeit the sum so advanced.

"Further, should any individual importing persons from the opposite shores be convicted of having brought such persons to this place for the purpose of pawning them, such offender shall be proceeded against as importer of slaves.

"And that no one may plead ignorance of this rule, the same shall be published and promulgated in the Netherlands, Native, and Chinese languages.

"Given at Malacca the 3rd November, 1819.

(Signed) "J. S. TIMMERMANN THYSSEN.

"By order of the Governor, the Secretary to Government,

(Signed) "M. BAUMHOUSE."

sum advanced upon them. All slaves clandestinely imported, while the place was held by the English, were declared free. On the 6th of December following, the anniversary of the birth of the Crown Prince of the Netherlands, the governor addressed the inhabitants of Malacca in an eloquent speech, stating that he had selected that day for the purpose of proposing to them to confer eternal honour on Malacca, by engaging that all slave children born at Malacca that day and thenceforth, be free and at liberty, after attaining the age of sixteen, to serve wherever they choose. He himself set the laudable example, which was immediately followed by all the officers civil and military; the members of the college of Justice, of the Anglo-Chinese College, and by the principal inhabitants of the place.

This mode of doing away with the miseries of slavery was enlightened and politic. It injured not the immediate interests of any individual by the sudden invasion of his private property, nor did it turn the children of the slaves adrift to starve, at an age when it would have been impossible for them to have provided for themselves; and lastly, it was effected, not by an imperious ukase, but by a well-timed appeal to all the generous and better feelings of the slave-owners.

The debtor system still exists, but under wise restrictions.

Since this, I believe, the citizens of Malacca have, much to their credit, come to the unanimous resolution of emancipating all their slaves on the 31st December, 1840.

Malacca was formerly a place of great trade, concentrating what is now shared and almost monopolised by its sister settlements, Pinang and Singapore. In 1815, the export and import duties and harbour fees, amounted to Spanish dollars, 50,591 80. In 1819, Singapore was established. In 1821, they fell to Spanish dollars, 23,282 30; and in 1823, they were reduced to Spanish dollars, 7,217 95. The trade of Malacca is now almost limited to its own produce, manufactures, and consumption. It exports annually about 20,000 rupees' worth of gold dust, to Madras, Calcutta, and Singapore, and about 144,000 of tin to the above places, China, and Pinang; also a considerable quantity of blachang, hides, hogs, fowls, jaggery, pepper, dammer, cordage, bricks and tiles, a little ebony and ivory to Singapore. Iron implements of agriculture, fire-arms, nails, &c., manufactured by the Chinese smiths at Malacca, to the native states. Rattans, lakkar, and aloe wood, to China and Pinang.

The greater part of the gold and tin exported,

is not the produce of the Company's territory, but of the native states in the neighbourhood, whence it is brought to Malacca by native boats, and overland by coolies. The best gold-dust is from Pahang and the foot of Mount Ophir. (See ascent to the summit of Mount Ophir, Chap. XIX.) A good deal is imported from Siac, on the opposite coast. A very large quantity is introduced from the interior, of which no official account can be taken. If any credit is to be placed on the assertions of the native gold merchants, not less than 100,000 rupees' worth is annually brought into Malacca.

A considerable portion of the tin is the produce of the Malacca lands, but the greater part of it is imported by native craft from Lingie,* Lukut, Salangore, Perak, and from other places in the interior. The lakkar and aloe woods are largely used by the Chinese, in the preparation of the joss, or incense sticks.

The imports are chiefly articles for transhipment, and for home consumption. Of importations for home consumption, the following are the principal articles.

Earthenware.	Rice.
Iron.	Sago.

* For farther accounts of the gold and tin of the Malay peninsula, see chapters VII. XVI. XVIII. XIX.

Joss paper.
Nankeen.
Oils.
Opium.
Paddy.
Piece goods, European and Indian.
—Chinese, &c.
Provisions, liquors, &c., for Europeans, Chinese, &c.
Salt.
Sugar.
Tea.
Coffee.
Tobacco.
Wheat.
Woollens.
Sundries, including various articles under this head.

Of articles imported for re-shipment, the following is a general view.

Betel nut.
Bees' wax.
Coffee.
Earthenware.
Gold dust.
Iron.
Opium.
Piece goods.
Rattans.
Raw silk.
Salt.
Tin.
Tobacco.

The following table will show the total of imports and exports at Malacca, from 1825 to 1835

STATEMENT SHEWING THE GROSS AMOUNT OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT MALACCA, FROM THE YEAR 1825–26, TO THAT OF 1834–35.

Years.	GENERAL.		SINGAPORE.		PINANG.		Total of Imports.	Total of Exports.
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.		
1825-26	1,351,227	1,103,883	..	..	..	..	1,351,227	1,103,883
1826-27	1,266,090	918,173	..	..	..	..	1,266,090	918,173
1827-28	1,341,334	1,039,220	..	..	..	..	1,341,334	1,039,220
1828-29	1,379,265	939,256	..	..	..	..	1,379,265	939,256
1829-30	391,660 8	223,380 8	463,965 8	339,655	94,435	32,012	950,061	595,047 8
1830-31	365,350 8	213,751 8	331,604 8	276,316 8	99,846 8	43,805 8	796,801 8	533,873 8
1831-32	458,744	228,583	325,440 8	287,846	68,836	42,603	853,020 8	559,032
1832-33	449,016	270,011 8	499,568 8	236,830	187,227 8	22,811 8	1,135,812	529,653
1833-34	429,540	209,349 8	423,022	321,925	187,721	50,592 8	1,040,283	581,867
1834-35	467,459 8	226,122	427,833 8	356,197	223,689	53,491	1,118,982	635,810
Total Sicca rps.	7,899,686 8	5,371,730	2,471,434 8	1,818,769 8	861,755	245,315 8	11,232,876	7,435,815

The import and export of specie, including the government, is stated thus :—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Excess.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1828-29	249,344	233,664	15,680 imported.
1829-30	124,133	245,806	121,673 exported.
1830-31	75,588	242,672	167,084 exported.
1831-32	76,974	250,079	173,105 exported.

The following is a statement of the import and export of some of the principal articles for 1834–35, compared with the average during the past ten years in sicca rupees.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.	
1834-35.	Average, last ten years.		1834-35.	Average, last ten years.
Sicca rps.	Sicca rps.		Sicca rps.	Sicca rps.
5,177½	8,032½	Bees' wax....	6,538	6,645½
23,219	6,988	Coffee	22,606½	36,377
27,800	83,168½	Opium	19,470½	8,108½
17,231½	11,465	Pepper	34,498	3,635
200,874	201,068	Piece goods Indian	154,759½	125,293
40,729½	63,093½	Piece goods Malay	21,489	22,558½
19,820	16,728½	Rattans.....	23,992	21,379½
12,544½	9,628	Raw silk	13,059	8,833
13,685½	13,414	Salt	5,807½	6,260½
99,758	91,158	Tin	108,838½	120,930
52,048½	53,056½	Tobacco	23,172	20,629½
512,888	557,800½		434,230½	430,650
	213,846	.. Rice		13,903
	351,540	.. Other Articles		298,027
Sicca rps.	1,123,186½		Sicca rps.	742,580

The trade of Malacca is supported principally by the states in the interior; Sungie Ujong, the Lingie river, Rumbowe, Johole, Muar, the opposite coast of Siac, and the north-eastern parts of Sumatra. From these, gold dust, tin, paddy, rice, ivory, ebony, are brought in exchange for specie, salt, opium, salt-fish, blachang, fish-roes, tobacco, piece-goods, and iron implements of agriculture. The imports of rice are chiefly from Java, Achin, and Bengal, and a small proportion from Siam, Pegue, Tavoy, and Rangoon. They have been decreasing latterly, owing to the increased local cultivation. The import in 1836 amounted to rupees 163,228½.

The first Dutch governor (1641) or land-voogd of Malacca, was Johan Van Twist. In 1644 we find Jeremias Van Vliet land-voogd, in 1680 Jacob Jarissoon Pits, and in 1703, Bernard Phoonson.

The government in 1782 consisted of a land-voogd, Pieter Gerraldus de Bruyn, and a council consisting of five members, viz., 1, the president of the court of justice; 2, the officer commanding the garrison; 3, the master attendant; 4, the fiscal; and the 5th, the winkelliar, or superintendent of the Company's trade.

On the British taking charge of Malacca in November 1795, the Dutch government under

Abraham Couperis was at first continued, but almost immediately dissolved by order of Lord Hobart, then Governor of Madras, and a British officer, Major Archibald Brown put in charge, who, returning to the coast, was succeeded on the 25th of the same month, (December 1795,) by Captain Thomas Parr. The administration of justice, in all cases not cognizable by court martial, was carried on as usual by the Dutch functionaries, whose powers were continued them by the governor and Commodore Rainier. Their proceedings were subjected to the revisal and approbation of the British government for the time being, before any decree or sentence could be carried into execution.

In March 1796, Lieutenant Colonel Falsen was in charge of Malacca. On the 14th of that month, he published extracts from the orders of the right honourable the president in council of Fort Saint George, directing that "all emoluments heretofore enjoyed by the civil servants of the Dutch East India Company, under whatsoever denomination, do cease; and that, from henceforward, no one in the civil establishment be paid beyond what may be absolutely deemed necessary for his actual subsistence, for which the wages and diet money drawn under the supreme government, must be considered at all times suf-

ficient for those not employed in the offices of government, and never be exceeded."

"To such as may be publicly employed, you will proportion their allowances to the labour and responsibility of their respective offices. But no one, whatsoever be his employment, must receive more than double the wages and diet-money granted under the late government."

In 1802 we find Colonel Taylor, resident of Malacca. This officer was succeeded in 1803 by Colonel Farquhar of the Madras engineers, who remained until the place was given up to the Dutch in 1818, when Timmermann Thyssen relieved him on behalf of His Netherlands majesty.

On the 1st March, 1825, Malacca was made over to the British commissioner, Mr. Cracroft, who remained in charge a short time, and was succeeded by Captain Mackenzie as resident. The present resident councillor, the Honourable S. Garling, Esq., was permanently appointed in August 1826. Under him is an assistant, W. T. Lewis, Esq., an extra covenanted servant transferred from Bencoolen, who also is superintendent of lands, &c. J. B. Westerhout, Esq., a private Dutch gentleman of Malacca, has the superintendence of the frontier province of Naning, and now (1837) draws a salary from government of 300 rupees per mensem.

The subjoined is a list for 1834-5, of the various departments at Malacca, civil, judicial, ecclesiastical, medical, &c., paid by government, with the amount of the respective monthly salaries of the different employés, together with the amount of the political pensions, including those paid on account of Pinang and Singapore to the ex-King of Quedah, and the late Sultan of Johore, then residing at Malacca.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT.

	St.Rs.			Sa.Rs.		
Resident Councillor.....	2000	0	0			
Assist. Res. Superintend. of Lands, &c.	1048	0	5			
				2916	10	4
Clerk of Accounts	150	0	0			
Clerk of Record Office	100	0	0			
Shroff	25	0	0			
Two Peons	16	0	0			
Duftree	12	0	0			
				289	15	0

ECCLESIASTICAL DEPARTMENT.

Acting Chaplain	250	0	0	239	3	7

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

Senior Sworn Clerk to Registrar	522	8	4			
Interpreter and Translator, Dutch, Portuguese, and Malay.....	100	0	0			
Chinese Interpreter.....	50	0	0			
Chuliah Interpreter	20	0	0			
Malay Writer and Swearer	20	0	0			
Hindoo Swearer.....	10	0	0			
Two Peons.....	20	0	0			
				710	8	3

SHERIFF'S ESTABLISHMENT.

	St.Rs.			Sa.Rs.		
Deputy Sheriff (annual appointment) ..	104	8	0	100	0	0
Gaoler	62	11	3			
Bailiff	52	4	0			
Turnkey	20	14	4			
Two Peons	20	14	4			
				150	0	0

CORONER'S ESTABLISHMENT.

One Peon	10	0	0	9	9	1

POLICE AND COURTS OF REQUESTS.

Clerk	200	0	0			
Constable	50	0	0			
Second ditto	30	0	0			
Gaoler	35	0	0			
Malay Swearer	30	0	0			
Chinese ditto	15	0	0			
Hindoo ditto	15	0	0			
Twenty-one Peons	210	0	0			
				559	12	6

CONVICT ESTABLISHMENT.

Overseer	50	0	0			
Road Overseer	20	0	0			
Eight Tindals	80	0	0			
				143	8	7

EXTRA CONVICT ESTABLISHMENT.

Six Pindals	60	0	0			
Twenty Convict Sirdars	20	0	0			
				76	8	10

MASTER ATTENDANTS' ESTABLISHMENT.

Assistant Master Attendant	293	4	11			
Clerk	65	0	0			
Peon	13	0	0			
Ditto	10	0	0			
				364	13	11

REVENUE DEPARTMENT, IMPORT AND EXPORT DEPARTMENT.

	St.Rs.	Sa.Rs.
Clerk	60 0 0	
Native Writer	30 0 0	
Two Peons	20 0 0	
		105 4 2

LAND DEPARTMENT.

Clerk	150 0 0	
Two Jurotulis	40 0 0	
Fourteen Peons, at 8 rupees each	112 0 0	
Two Paddy Collectors, at 10 rupees each	20 0 0	
		308 1 11

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

Assistant Surgeon	400 0 0	
Assistant Apothecary	50 0 0	
Native Second Dresser	15 0 0	
		444 15 4

VESSELS AND BOATS DEPARTMENT.

One Tindal, or Nakhoda	20 0 0	
Sixteen Lascars, at 8 rupees each	128 0 0	
		141 9 11

POOR HOUSE AND INFIRMARY.

Average per month	276 1 10	264 3 5

SCHOOLS.

Allowance to the Free School	219 15 9	210 8 0
Ditto to Roman Catholic Priests	104 8 1	100 0 0

MAGAZINE ESTABLISHMENT.

Serjeant	20 0 0	
Tindal	12 8 0	
Six Lascars, at 10 rupees each	60 0 0	
Chickledar	10 0 0	
Armourer	12 0 0	
		109 9 0

SIGNAL DEPARTMENT.

Serjeant	20 0 0	19 2 2

POST-OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT.

	St.Rs.			Sa.Rs.		
Clerk	30	0	0			
Peon	8	0	0			
				36	5	9
Commissariat Officer, and Establishment	150	0	0	143	8	7
Temporary Establishment Commissariat Department, as sanctioned in a letter from the Governor, dated 17th February, 1834	15	6	4	14	11	9

PENSIONS PAYABLE FROM THE TREASURY, MALACCA.

JUDICIAL PENSIONS.

	per annum.					
Chan Olim—Chinese Captain	420	0	0			
Haji Abubekir,—Malay ditto	420	0	0			
Maria Wiggins (ceasing on marriage)..	229	10	5			
				1023	9	5
POLITICAL.						
Ex-Panghulu of Naning (life)	1200	0	0	1118	5	2
MILITARY.						
Chila Ram, invalid, (life)	122	0	0			
Chinganah ditto	134	14	0			
Imam Udin ditto	122	0	0			
Peer Maul ditto	134	14	0			
				491	10	0
POLITICAL PENSIONS.						
aid on account of Singapore and Prince of Wales's Island, to His Highness the Sultan of Singapore	2859	12	3			
Ditto to the ex-King of Quedah	1833	2	11			
				4490	13	8

The revenue of Malacca is derived from the Excise-farms, a tenth levied on the fruits of the soil, rents, quit-rent, post-office dues, and from fees and fines of the police and courts of justice.

The Excise-farms constitute the most considerable branch of revenue. In the year 1835-6, the sum realized upon them amounted to Rs. 46,360, 7 a. 8 p. The articles at present farmed by Government are opium, spirits, toddy, and bang (an intoxicating preparation of hemp used by Natives), pork and betel leaf.

There was formerly a very lucrative one of gambling, which has been discontinued since the King's Court of Judicature exercised jurisdiction. The betel-leaf farm was much advanced by the promulgation of the existing regulations.

There are also taxes levied on shops, carts, markets, and market-stalls; and on pawn-brokerage, of recent introduction. The market-stalls are not properly a farm or Excise, being merely stalls rented out. In 1830-31, the present market regulations were brought into operation, and the stalls were then made over to the farmer with the rest of the markets.* It appearing that he re-

* The farms rented out by the Dutch government, from 1818 to 1825, are as follows:

	Sp.dol.	cts.
Opium	4,484	61
Spirits	6,997	69
Shop Tax	516	15
Fish Market	2,453	84
Gambling Farm	3,410	0
Betel-leaf	693	84
Pork	2,208	46
Timber	226	0

quired only a certain portion of them, they were, from that time, rented out separately. The following page contains a statement of the produce of the Government farms since the cession of Malacca in 1825 up to 1837 :—

Great Bazaar, or Rice Market	888	46	
Ferry Farm	368	7	
Weights and Measures	1,193	7	
Buffalo-meat Farm.....	423	7	
Sp. drs.	23,863	26	per an.
In 1821			
The import and export duties amounted to	22,042	30	
Harbour, Anchorage, &c.	1,240	0	
Farms	20,857	27	
	44,139	57	

The export and import duties alone, prior to the establishment of Singapore, in 1819, amounted to upwards of 50,000 dollars; in 1815, to 50,591 doll. 10 cents. Previous to 1795, the following sources yielded a small revenue to the Dutch government:

	Rix dol.
The Gentlemen's Tavern.....	10
Shopkeepers' privilege	705
Poll-tax on Chinese.....	2,270
Measures and Weights	175
Cock-fighting	25
Public Weights, Custom-house.....	2,785
Draw-bridge.....	275
Licence for the prows up the river.....	275
Rice Bazaar	570
Anchorage Portuguese Ships	2,020
Ditto for small vessels.....	355
	9,465

SUMS REALIZED ON SALE OF MALACCA FARMS, IN SPANISH DOLLARS.

	1826-27	1827-28	1828-29	1829-30	1830-31	1831-32	1832-33	1833-34	1834-35	1335-36	1836-37
Opium	5,640	4,320	4,680	4,020	4,920	3,720	4,680	5,460	6,060	5,340	5,700
Spirit	6,660	4,812	6,300	5,520	9,120	6,486	7,620	6,780	8,400	7,380	7,020
Gaming	4,080	4,080	4,560	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Toddy and Bang	396	240	280	540	540	594	960	1,080	732	684	696
Pork	1,392	2,940	2,940	3,480	3,120	2,790	2,820	2,064	2,244	2,580	2,460
Bètel-leaf	912	840	744	732	3,840	3,990	3,480	3,492	3,492	2,916	2,316
Shop and Cart Tax	900	840	744	600	552	498	480	480	372	..	..
Market	..	..	..	..	1,365	2,598	2,106	2,292	2,280	2,412	2,400
Pawn Brokerage	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	120	120
Market Stalls	1,188	756	80	600	1	580	306	396	564	444	576

With regard to the origin of the tenth on the produce of the soil, all land on the Malay Peninsula, during the Native Government, was supposed to be the property of the Sovereign. Land is, however, so abundant in proportion to the population, that people in general settle, build, and plant wherever they think proper; provided they do not interfere with their neighbours. They are subject to the imposition of a tenth (or other dues) on the produce, in right of the Lord of the Manor, or of the Prince of the State, wherever they happen to settle. The trees they plant, the houses they build, the forest they clear, with nine-tenths, or little less, of the produce, remain their bonâ fide property, to be handed down from father to son, or to be sold or transferred as they think fit. The land is still considered as the property of the Sovereign. The value of an estate consequently is not estimated by its length and breadth, but by the number of houses and fruit-trees upon it. Should the land be deserted for any length of time, it of course becomes waste (see Fasls. xix, xx, xxi, Malay code), and reverts to the Prince.

In Sumatra, Mr. Marsden states, whilst any of the fruit-trees planted on the estate subsist, the descendants of the planter may claim the ground, though it has for years been abandoned. If they are cut down, he may recover damages; but if

they have disappeared in the course of nature, the land reverts to the public.

These principles of Malayan law and usage were, in a great measure, recognised at Malacca in 1829 by a British judge, Sir J. T. Claridge, in an action brought by a Native, named Abdul Latif, against Mahomed Meera Lebe, to recover possession of a piece of ground, wherein it was decided, that in the territories of Malacca the *owners* of the soil and the *cultivators* of it are entirely distinct persons, except in the town, and in its immediate vicinity.

That the *owner* of the soil cannot eject the *cultivator*, as long as he continues to pay him a certain portion of the produce, generally one-tenth.

That the *owner* of the soil may sell, or otherwise dispose of his interest, without prejudice to the *cultivator*, and the *cultivator* vice versâ.

That, in case the *cultivator* allows the land to lie waste, the *owner* of the soil may eject him by due process of law.

That the fact of lands lying uncultivated for certain periods, is evidence of waste.

That the period for

Paddy Lands is	3 years.
Cocoa-nut and other fruit-trees	3 years.
Gambier	1 year.
Pepper	1 year.

After the British had taken possession of Malacca, in 1825, it was found that scarcely a foot of land, with the exception of a few spots near the town, belonged to Government; that the proprietary rights in the soil of the whole territory of Malacca had been given away, in grants to various individuals, by the Dutch, reserving to Government the right of imposing a land-tax on the whole. These rights were re-purchased from the various proprietors by the British Government under Mr. Fullerton's administration, from the 1st of July, 1828, so long as the settlement of Malacca should remain under the British flag, for the exorbitant annual sum of sicca rupees, 16,270, payable to the proprietors and their heirs.

The subjoined is a list of the lands, their proprietors, and the sums paid monthly to each in sonat rupees.

COMPENSATION ON LANDS.

TO WHOM PAID.	LANDS.	St.Rs.	A.	P.
J. B. de Wind	Ally and Candang Gappam &c.	391	14	3
Heirs A. Kock	Sungie Baru	174	2	9
Appoo Kechil	Battu Brendam	130	10	1
Daniel Kock	Pancalang Battu	74	0	5
Heirs de Costa	Durian Tungal	60	15	5
A. A. Velge	Kleybang Kechil	43	8	8
J. B. Westerhout, and C. Neubronner	Bali Panjang	39	3	0
Do.	Ching, &c.	217	11	6
Do.	St. Jeronimo	8	11	4

		St.Rs.	A.	P.
Amimah and Co	Pancalang Ramah	33	1	6
Haji Abubekir	Pringit, &c.	26	2	0
Inchi Amidah	Padang Samabok	8	11	4
Mahomed Tyre & Wife	Battu Ampar	26	2	0
Inchi Aroom	Sebrang Pattye			
Do.	Sebrang Gajah	26	2	0
Do.	Panchoor			
Sarial	Campong Kling	8	11	4
Mahomed and Co	Bertam Besar	4	5	8
Heirs Samsoodin	Sungie Pootah	4	5	8
Sedeswa Chitty	Gajah Berang	65	5	1
Manuel de Souza	Bringin, &c.	34	13	4
Inchi Soorin	Pancalang Doun	14	12	11
J. B. Westerhout	Malim	13	1	0
Inchi Sadiah	Bertam Kechil	10	7	3
	Total in St. Rps.	1416	14	6
	Total in Sicca Rps.	1355	14	3

The revenue accruing to government from these lands, is a tenth levied on the produce. To this regulation, with the exception of the rice-crops, nothing is subject which does not pass the tolls established at the various entrances into Malacca, where the tenth is levied by collectors on behalf of government, upon such articles of produce, timber, fruits, vegetables, &c., as are brought into the town. The lands of the Panghúlus, their mata matas, or assistants, and of the priests have been, from time out of mind, and are still, exempt. Persons, beyond the precincts of the town, living on *their own estates*,

pay nothing to government. The following table will show, at one view, in gantangs, the annual produce of rice or paddy, both on the government lands, (as well those which pay as those which do not pay tenth,) and on lands belonging to the cultivators, since the cession in 1828 up to 1835-36.

Government Lands subject to Tenth.			Govt. Lands exempt from Tenth.		Free Lands 14th Fold.				Total of Gantangs reaped.
Years.	No. of Planters.	Gantangs reaped.	No. of Planters.	Gants. reaped.	No. of Planters.	Gants. sown.	Gants. reaped.		
1828-29	..	537,040	..	53.108	..	..	100,914		691,062
1829-30	..	703,480	..	96,030	..	6,881	110,201		909,711
1830-31	2,765	567,470	152	59,859	282	6,759	106,168		733,497
1831-32	..	284,180	..	15,382	..	7,122	104,483		404,045
1832-33	..	366,800	..	18,788	..	7,346	102,858		483,446
1833-34	2,739	566,730	146	41,115	..	7,245	80,862		688,707
1834-35	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..
1835-36	3,270	888,430	156	44,717	282	..	605,486		1,538,633
							Total.....		5,454,101

The annual average number of planters and

produce for the last eight years of government lands is as follows :—

LANDS PAYING TENTH.

No. of Planters 2,864. Paddy Gantangs 608,209.

LANDS EXEMPT.

No. of Planters 151. Paddy Gantangs 48,588.

The nature of other articles of land-produce on which the tenth is levied at the tolls, and of other available revenue, will be seen from the subjoined statement of the receipts of the Malacca Land Department for 1833-34.

PRODUCE.	TENTH. Drs.	cents.
Fruits and Vegetables	649	18
Sugar and Sugar Cane.....	207	34
Betel Leaf.....	258	95
Do. Nut.....	48	78
Dammer and Wood Oil	43	82
Ijo	4	74
Ataps.....	66	90
Silk and Cotton.....	5	76
Gambier	137	22
Timber	484	88
Lignum Aloes	4	29
Wax	2	56
Ebony	8	55
White Earth	17	36

	Drs.	cents.
Ivory	2	83
Bricks	196	42
Black pepper	51	26
Cloves	1	35

The Pringit and Samabok rents amounted to 60 drs. 86 cents.

The land revenue for 1835-6 amounted to Company's rupees, 10,983 8a. 7p.

	Comps. Rs.	A.	P.
Tenths	4,276	3	4
Rents	471	14	5
Pepper	1,244	14	10
Paddy	4,990	8	0
	10,983	8	7

To collect this revenue there is an expensive establishment under a superintendent of land, W. T. Lewis, Esq., the cost of which, including its contingencies, amounted, in 1835-6, to Company's rupees 4,257 12a. 7p.

These ceded lands, therefore, instead of being a profit, have occasioned, on the average, a dead loss to the state of upwards of 10,000 rupees annually. Mr. Fullerton, to whom I believe the credit is partly due of having saddled Government with them, (charged, as long as the British flag should continue to fly at Malacca, with the annual pay-

ment to the former proprietors, of 16,270 rupees,) founded his conclusions on very erroneous data, when he rated the average produce of paddy at 2,638,575 gantangs annually: for the average actual produce, during the last eight years, as already shewn, does not exceed 608,209 gantangs, not one-fourth of that estimate. Mr. Fullerton's calculation of the probable revenue is of course in proportion.

The revenue, &c. of the Malacca lands, as given above, was, we believe, estimated by Mr. Lewis, the present superintendent of lands, and by the proprietors themselves. There is no doubt, that in some cases extravagant sums in compensation are being paid annually by Government to the proprietors. To this cause, and to mismanagement both in the cultivation of the lands and in the collection of the tenth, must be attributed the loss I have mentioned. That loss is more fully exhibited in the annexed table, where the results of the measure, since the commencement of its operation in 1828, up to 1834, are brought into one view.

YEARS.	REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.			LOSS TO STATE.		
	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.
1828-29	14,695	11	3	20,996	1	9	6,300	6	6
1829-30	12,859	13	10	22,200	6	11	9,340	9	1
1830-31	8,916	0	4	16,557	15	1	7,641	14	9
1831-32	6,108	13	11	20,162	10	6	14,053	12	7
1832-33	8,859	4	5	20,317	1	3	11,457	12	10
1833-34	8,865	3	8	20,482	12	4	11,617	8	8

In 1836, the expenditure of the land department amounted to Comp. Rs.	21,612	7	3
Revenue	10,983	8	7
Leaving a loss to the State of ...	10,628	14	8

Such is the history and present state of the land and excise revenue of Malacca.

The following is a detailed statement of the amount of all the sources whence revenue is drawn at Malacca, from 1st May, 1835, to 30th April, 1836.

	R.	A.	P.
Excise Farms	46,360	7	8
Land Department	10,750	11	6
Quit Rent	1,239	15	6
Fees, King's Court of Judicature	1,238	8	0
—— Court of Requests	1,035	7	3
—— Police Office	969	5	1
—— Quarter Sessions	60	0	0
Rent Dool Seyd's premises	0	0	8
Post Office dues	272	12	0
Annual Passes to local vessels ...	23	2	0
Registry fee of a vessel built at Malacca...	20	0	0
2½ per cent. fees on transfer of real property	217	2	9
Net proceeds of empty treasure-chests sold	30	3	5

ASIATIC

	R.	A.	P.
Over-payment to harbour master	10	9	0
Gun-powder sold.....	45	0	0
Sale of sundry stores.....	112	12	10
—— Copper nails	1	12	0
—— Commissariat provisions ...	932	11	9
Gain on exchange of payments to 4 per cent. loan	143	13	0
—— Bills drawn on Bengal	129	14	9
Stationery sold.....	661	3	9
Military stores, condemned, sold ...	41	0	9
	64,296	9	8

I am not aware of the total amount of revenue derived by the Dutch previously to 1795. Sir Stamford Raffles, in his paper on Malacca in 1807, states it to be 83,000 dollars, its expenses 79,000, thus yielding a small annual profit of 4,000 dollars. From 1812 to 1818, according to Colonel Farquhar, it amounted, on an average, to 75,180 drs.; its expenses to 72,600 drs.; yielding an average annual surplus of 3,169 drs.

It must be borne in mind, that this surplus to Government was achieved under a cheap and effective military administration, merely by duties on imports and exports, and by the annual farming of the exclusive Government privileges. This

regime has suffered considerable change. Malacca, from 1826, has had a civil establishment; has had to pay its share in the expenses of a Court of Judicature; has been obliged to make an extravagant annual compensation, amounting to 16,270 sicca rupees for lands, which of right, perhaps, are its own; (Colonel Farquhar does not seem to entertain any doubt of this right, when he states, in 1818, that the country of Malacca would very soon be in a condition to support a slight assessment.) The duties on its exports and imports have been taken off; a source of considerable revenue, the gambling-farm, has been done away with, and what is the result? Why an average annual loss to the state of upwards of 100,000 rupees, not including the expenses of the Naning war.

STATEMENT OF TOTAL OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, AND ANNUAL LOSS TO THE STATE OF THE SETTLEMENT OF MALACCA, FROM 1831–32, TO 1833–34.

YEARS.	REVENUE.	EXPENDITURE.	ANNUAL LOSS TO THE STATE.
	Sa.Rs.	Sa.Rs.	Sa.Rs.
1831-32	48,800	184,500	135,700
1832-33	69,800	359,800	290,000
1833-34	60,700	526,200	465,500

The above statement must be considered with reference to the following observations:—Between 1831–32—1832–33—1833–34, there is a great in-

crease in the expenditure: this was caused by larger advances to the military paymaster, and by commissariat charges for grain and supplies during the Naning war, (the rest of the war expenses, the transport of troops, the charges for convicts, except the establishment, do not appear in the Malacca accounts, being charged to their respective presidencies,) by the Judicial Establishment, when it again came into operation, and by various arrears paid off during these years.

The system of education among the Malays of Malacca does not differ from that already described, as obtaining among those of Pinang. The males are circumcised at the age of seven, and then sent to school, and consigned altogether to the care of their preceptor. The pupil commences by being taught to write the Malay and Arabic alphabet on a pipe-clayed board of pulai wood, with a pen made from the dark spike of the Ijou or Gomuto-tree. He is then made to write and to commit to memory short sentences from the Koran, which are repeated every afternoon until the whole of the thirty chapters are got by heart. A great number of children, including all the females, are not sent to school, but are instructed at home, a practice that does the Malays much credit. The expense of the school education, however, is not heavy, being only four pice a-week, and a

small present to the master, on entering and leaving the school. The corporal punishments are severe, and there are no rewards, which is a great defect.

Education among the Chinese in the colonies, is at a much lower ebb than in the mother country. The reasons are the pressing nature of their avocations, and the non-emigration of females from China. Owing to the latter, the colonists are constrained to intermarry with the people, among whom they settle; in the Straits generally with Malays and with their descendants; consequently the Malay language is the one commonly spoken in their houses, and becomes the vernacular of their children, to whom the later acquirement of Chinese must become a matter of time and difficulty. The following account of the Chinese native schools at Malacca, is taken from the Indo-Chinese Gleaner, vol. ii. page 266.

"*Number of Schools and Scholars.*—About five years ago, there were, they say, eight Chinese schools in Malacca, for Fokien children, containing about 150 scholars, and one Canton school containing ten or twelve scholars; this, compared with the aggregate number of Chinese children in the town, would give a proportion of about one to five. At present the number of schools and scholars (exclusive of the mission schools) is rather diminished, there being only five schools,

in which not more than 100 children are instructed. Of this number, scarcely one in ten continue (and those that do, are the children of the richer inhabitants) long enough to derive any essential benefit from the schools; the poorer class cannot afford to keep their children at school longer than two or three years, a term during which they are scarcely able to learn any thing useful, having only time to get through the first rudiments; and being taken from school, at such an early period, before they have learnt to apply their acquisitions to practical uses, all that they have gained is soon forgotten.

"*Ceremonies on entrance.*—It is customary on this occasion, for the scholar to bring a few articles as a present to the master, among which are, an egg and a cup of dried pulse, the one indicating the clearness of intellect necessary for learning, and the other implying a wish that the master's instructions may flow with ease into the scholar's mind, as the pulse flows from the cup when it is inverted. In China, the scholars provide even the master's clothes, but that custom does not seem to obtain here.

At the head of the school, there is generally an altar-piece, with the words "the ancient teacher Confucius, who has eminently attained the rank of the most holy sage;" or "the teacher and pat-

tern for myriads of ages;" written in large Chinese characters; an incense pot is placed before it, and candles are kept continually burning on the altar. The scholar, on his first entrance, must bow before this altar, as also every day on coming to school. This is considered not merely a tribute of respect to the memory of the deceased sage, but an act of worship to him as a demi-god.

"*School-money.*—The average sum paid as school-money is, for the poorer children, about eight dollars a-year; the rich give double that sum, and often more than double, according to their ability, and the care they wish to be taken of their children; in addition to this the parents provide the children with books, ink, inkstones, paper, pencils, tables, and stools, and every thing requisite for a school, except the bare apartment. The school-money is paid at the end of the year, and a whole year's school-money is expected, whether the children attend the full time or not. The school-master's stipend is called in polite language, Sew-kin, regulated gold.

"*School-hours.*—These are from six in the morning until six in the evening, allowing two or three hours in the morning and at noon for meals; in the evening, the scholars attend to their lessons

at home, that they may bring them perfect the next day.

"Their holidays are not numerous; they consist merely of the four feasts, at the four seasons of the year—various other feasts, and the birth day of Confucius. The schools break up about the middle of the twelfth month, and do not re-open till about the middle of the first month of the ensuing year.

"*Mode of Education—Reading.*—The scholars read aloud, both when studying and repeating their lessons; in this, each one strives to outvie the other in noise, which in a school containing thirty or forty children, is extremely loud, and may be heard at a great distance. The first book they commence with, is the San-tzse-king, or the three character classic: a book which has nothing more to recommend it for the use of children, than that it is written in a sort of rhyme, but the style of which is difficult, and the subject in some parts abstruse and distant from their thoughts; they of course do not understand it, neither is it the care of the teacher to make it intelligible to them. When they have committed this little book to memory, which, though it contains but 1056 monosyllabic words, yet takes many of them six months, and some a whole year; they then

proceed to the four books of Confucius: these they first read over, and afterwards commit to memory, without having a single character explained to them; they labour early and late at this toilsome task, and yet it is four or five years before they can accomplish it. When the four books are finished, they then begin the commentary on them, written by Choo-foo-tzse, and commit that likewise to memory. Having arrived at this period of their studies, the teacher begins to explain to them something of what they have been learning for the last five years, and to make it a little intelligible to them: to do this sooner, is considered by the teachers to be but lost labour, as the children are not, till then, capable of understanding and appreciating their instructions. The work of the teacher being now increased, his salary must also be raised; otherwise, the unfortunate scholars are likely to continue in the same state of darkness and ignorance. After the four books, with the commentary on them, are finished, the scholar next proceeds to the Woo-king, a very ancient composition, and very difficult to understand. Having passed through this series of studies, the young man is considered as paou hĕoh, *i. e.* "having a belly full of learning," and is sent out into the world to do for himself.

"The practice of committing to memory what-

ever they learn in Chinese is of great importance, and would be extremely useful were the teachers but to explain the meaning of the books to the pupils as they go on; but at present, it is a heavy burden laid on their shoulders, which they find it difficult to bear. Interested motives first gave rise to this useful practice, otherwise it would not perhaps have become so general; in China, no one can lawfully be raised to any office under the state who is not able to repeat the sacred books, and to compose some piece on the doctrines contained in them, which undergoes a most rigorous examination.

"In schools, among the Fokien people, the practice of committing much to memory is not attended with so much benefit as might be expected, from the circumstance of their colloquial dialect being entirely different from that in which they read and learn; insomuch, that though persons may be well acquainted with the colloquial dialect, yet the dialect in which they read is so different, that much may be committed to memory without being understood. This forms a great barrier to improvement in Fokien schools, as the scholars have two dialects to acquire before they can understand, or make themselves intelligible to others. The same is the case in Canton schools.

"*Writing the Characters.*—This is a most essential practice for those who study Chinese, as well for natives as foreigners; the symbols of the language being so numerous, that without constant and unremitted practice, it is impossible to rivet them in the mind. In Chinese schools, this forms part of every day's labour, but is not so fully attended to, nor are such facilities afforded for it, as the nature of the difficulties to be encountered require. They have copy-books, as in European schools, the paper of which being thin, the copies are placed underneath, and the pupil is made to decipher the characters on the upper sheet. But the master does not point out the component parts of the character, or trouble himself to make the scholar acquainted with the radicals of the language: and no exercise of mind being required in mere copying, the scholar is some time before he learns to think for himself, or can decipher the characters without the help of the copy. Both in reading and writing, the children are taught individually, there being no classes in Chinese schools, by which much advantage is lost, and no laudable emulation excited.

"*Arithmetic.*—This is not taught in Chinese schools; the teachers themselves being generally ignorant of it; they consider it rather the business

of the shop than the school, where the children must go to learn it.

"*Punishment.*—The punishments inflicted on the idle and disobedient, vary according to the disposition of the master; they employ the rattan, and a flat piece of bamboo, about an inch broad and two feet long, which they call a chŏh-pae. Those masters who are more cruel strike very hard with these, so as even to produce blood; when the scholar has not prepared his lesson sufficiently, he is obliged to kneel down and learn it on his knees: the more incorrigible are made to kneel on gravel and small stones strewed on the floor, or on a couple of cockle-shells, inverted, to increase the pain. In some instances, fines are imposed on the elder boys, who are more sensible of shame; and the money thus obtained is applied to the purchase of paper, ink, &c., which are distributed among the more deserving; these fines, however, are not customary in every school, and when they are not, there are no rewards which the deserving can look forward to, except exemption from punishment.

"*Effect on the Population.*—Those Chinese who come from China are generally able to read a common book; but those born in Malacca are not so well informed; from the causes above-mentioned, probably not one in ten (though they

have been at school several years) is able to understand books written in the plainest style: a few characters suffice for carrying on their business, and with these they are contented, seldom seeking for any thing beyond this. No doubt the increase of education, on an improved plan, would much ameliorate their condition—would make them better members of society, and better capable of receiving the Gospel; for this, efforts are now making, and will, no doubt, by the blessing of God, be eventually successful."

There are several Hindoo schools, which, I understand, are conducted similarly to those in Continental India. There exist also schools, maintained by the voluntary support of European residents, for the education of children, both of Europeans and Natives. The free-school was commenced on the 18th January, 1819, under the patronage of Governor Thyssen, and placed under the direction of a president, committee, secretary, and treasurer, and heads of the native castes. Its professed objects were to afford the means of education, such as reading, writing, and arithmetic, in Dutch and Malay, to the children of Dutch, Portuguese, Chinese, Malays, and Hindoos. The poor to be educated gratis; but the children of such as could afford it, to pay at fixed rates for their education. The parsonage-

house was appropriated for the use of the school, and for the residence of the school-master. The English language is now substituted for the Dutch, and an allowance granted by government of 1200 Spanish dollars per annum. The number of children educated at this establishment amounted, in 1835, to forty-three. It formerly included a school for girls, which has ceased to exist for want of an instructress: this should be looked to.

The following is an abstract of the funds of this establishment for 1835.

	Sp. drs	
Cash on hand	267	54½
Bonds at 8 per cent per annum ...	2,500	0
Ditto 9 do. do. ...	1,610	0
Ditto 12 do. do. ...	250	0
Interest outstanding	113	61
Sp. drs.	4,741	15½

The salary of the master is 840 Spanish dollars per annum; 600 have been offered for a school-mistress, with apartments in the school-house rent-free.

A brief notice of the Anglo-Chinese College must not be omitted here. Its objects are mainly the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and Euro-

pean literature, and the diffusion of Christianity. European tutors are appointed to instruct the Europeans in Chinese; and to instruct the Chinese, with other Ultra-Gangetic nations reading Chinese, in European literature. There are also two native Chinese teachers. Provision is made for instruction in the Malay language, and in Ultra-Gangetic literature, but as subordinate objects. To European students, the Chinese language is taught either for religious, literary, or commercial purposes; and to the native students, geography, history, moral philosophy, and Christianity. The resources of this institution are fees paid by European and Native students, who are able to maintain themselves, and voluntary contributions. Students eligible for admission, are persons from any nation in Europe, or from America; persons of any Christian communion, bringing with them proper testimonials of their moral habits, and of the objects they have in view; persons from European or other universities, having travelling fellowships; persons belonging to commercial companies; and persons attached to the establishment of official representatives of foreign nations. Also native youths belonging to China, and its tributary kingdoms, or to any of the islands and countries around, who either support themselves, or are supported by Christian so-

cieties, or by private gentlemen, who wish to serve them by giving them the means of obtaining a knowledge of the elements of English literature.

Attached to the college is an English, Chinese, and Malay press, of which literary students may avail themselves; and from which have issued several interesting works. Among them are a revised translation into Chinese of the Holy Scriptures, by Dr. Morrison; Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, a Chinese and Latin work, on Chinese language and literature; the "Four Books," a Chinese classical work, translated into English by the Rev. Mr. Collie. There is also a library, a large-sized room on the ground-floor, well stocked with European and Chinese books, which require arrangement. Globes, Siamese MSS., and various Chinese curiosities. A botanical garden was originally projected, but has failed, from mismanagement. The object of it was to collect, under one view, all the tropical plants of the Eastern Archipelago. I would fain call the attention of the trustees to the fulfilment of this praiseworthy intention of the enlightened founder, the Rev. Dr. Morrison, now no more. He gave 1,000*l.* at the erection of the college, and endowed it with 100*l.* annually, for the succeeding five years. The Company granted an allowance

of 1200 Spanish dollars per annum, which was discontinued in 1830.

This defalcation would have proved almost fatal to the prospects of the institution, had not the select committee of the British factory in China promptly stepped forward at this crisis to its assistance. Their letter to the President on this occasion does them infinite credit, and will be found below,* as also a statement of the funds

* "To the Rev. Dr. Morrison, President of the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca.

"SIR,

"We have to acquaint you, that we have learned with much regret that the allowance which had been made by the Pinang government, of 100 dollars per month, to the college over which you preside, had lately been withdrawn. We have considered it our duty to make the same grant for this current year, in the name of the East India Company, have recommended its continuance to the Court of Directors, and entreated their further countenance and support to the Institution. We have ourselves a firm conviction of its excellence. We believe it to be eminently calculated to diffuse the light of knowledge and of useful instruction through the most remote possessions of Great Britain; and to assist in removing those prejudices which have so long fettered the public mind of this country, subjected it to the influence of an exclusive nationality, and induced it to regard with indifference every thing foreign to its established usages and literature.

"By the means of liberal education, so readily afforded to the natives of England, as well as China, in the learning and language of either country, we consider the intercourse between the subjects of the two empires will be materially facilitated.

"Wishing the Anglo-Chinese College every prosperity, and be-

for 1830-31.* The foundation-stone of the college was laid on the 11th November, 1818, by Major W. Farquhar, in the presence of the Dutch governor Timmermann Thyssen. The management of the institution was vested in a president, with five patrons, and a board of five trustees, of which the treasurer and secretary of the London Missionary Society have been members, since the connexion of the college with the mission. There

lieving that it is an institution which requires only to be more generally known to have its important objects universally appreciated,

"We remain, sir, your most obedient servants,

(Signed) "Charles Majoribanks,
"J. F. Davis,
"J. A. Daniell,
"T. C. Smith."

"*British Factory, Canton,*
Jan. 7th, 1831.

* DISBURSEMENT.

From 1st January, 1830, to 30th June, 1831.

	Drs.	Cts.
To the Principal's salary for eighteen months	1,125	00
To Native Teachers ditto	468	00
To Allowances for Native Students.....	886	09
To Transcriber's salary.....	108	00
To Oil	64	68
To printing "Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ," (in part) ..	333	75
To Repairs of the College House	59	15
To Servants' and Coolies' Wages	126	00
Sp. drs.	3,170	67

are several Malay, Chinese, Hindoo, and Indo-Portuguese schools, for girls and boys, under the mission, as also a large one for boys of all nations,

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GENERAL STATEMENT.

Treasurer to the Anglo-Chinese College.

Dr.	Drs.	Cts.	*Cr.*	Drs.	Cts.
To Balance on hand, 1st Jan. 1830....	11,214	54	By Balance in account with the fund in China..	486	11
To Monthly Allowance from H. E. I. Company, for six months	600	00	By Disbursement	3,170	67
Interest on Cash in Singapore, due December, 1830	649	34			
Interest on cash in Malacca, due 30th June, 1831	768	10			
Donations.....	130	00			
Balance on sale of "The Four Books"	29	00	Balance due 30th June, 1831	10,607	78
Cash for bills on China	873	58			
Sp. drs.	14,264	56	Sp. drs.	14,264	56

STATE OF THE FUNDS.

Bonds held on money at Interest in Singapore....	5,600	00
Ditto ditto in Malacca	4,650	00
Balance in hand	357	78
Sp. drs.	10,607	78

SAMUEL KIDD, Treasurer,

The above account examined and found correct,

JOSIAH HUGHES.

under the Rev. Mr. Tomlin. The whole of these establishments for the education of the natives are subject to the same remarks in a greater or less degree, as the schools at Pinang.

The great objection urged against our occupation of Malacca has been its heavy expense to the State, and the little comparative advantage hitherto derived from it. Formerly, as has been already shewn, Malacca yielded a small annual surplus. It now produces all it formerly did. But, situated on the main with a large extent of frontier, separating its territory from the wild domains of numerous and warlike Malayan chiefs, perpetually at strife, and over whom our peculiar system of petty and vexatious interference, misnamed "non-interference," prevents us from exerting any moral influence or control, it requires a large conservative establishment, disproportionate to the numerical strength of its scattered population. Then it has been subjected to new and serious charges; while, at the same time, an important branch of income has been lopped off. Only remove these evils—only suffer Malacca to be charged agreeably to her revenue, and to pay a share towards the Court's expenses proportionate to the amount of fees collected and business done therein, and we shall see her making a better figure in the Company's financial department; Malacca could not

be abandoned without political detriment; it would prove, in the hands of an enemy, a post of great annoyance to the free navigation of the Strait. Together with Naning, it is our only settlement, if we may except that narrow strip of coast, Province Wellesley, on the Malay Peninsula; and by reason of ancient associations, as having been long the seat of Malayan Empire, it gives its occupiers a great moral influence, not only among the Malay powers of the Peninsula, but also among those of the opposite shore of Sumatra. It serves as a source of supply to our insulated settlement of Singapore, exporting cattle, poultry, pigs, fruit, &c. in great abundance, and possesses many advantages as a port of refreshment for her Majesty's and other ships. This was strongly urged by the Admiral commanding the East India station, in 1807. It has mines of tin and gold, which require only European skill and capital to render them abundantly productive. Agriculture is on the increase, and primeval forests are fast disappearing under the axe of the clearer. The notorious salubrity of Malacca, the richness of the soil, and the facility of water-carriage, offer great attractions to colonists. The spots I would recommend are the banks and mouths of the larger rivers. Qualla Lingie, or the mouth of the Lingie river, is a locality extremely well adapted to

the wants of a young colony. Its advantages are, a navigable river, leading up to the tin mines of Sungie-ujong, filled with fine fish, a safe and easy communication both by land and sea with the town of Malacca, and a fine extent of undulating territory, particularly favourable for the cultivation of rice, cocoa-nuts, and spices.

CHAPTER V.

NANING.—Area and Boundaries.—Physical Aspect.—Streams.—Roads.—Thermal Springs.—Unhealthy Localities.—History.—Native Form of Government.—Villages, &c.—Population.—Military Character of.—Religion.—Priests.—Mosques.—Sacred Tombs.—Ceremonies observed on occasion of Births, Marriages, and Deaths.—Religious Fasts and Festivals.—Trade.—Gold and Tin Mines.—Revenue.

NANING is an inland territory; its mean length, north and south, about forty miles, by an average of ten in breadth, giving 400 square miles. It lies to the north of the Malacca lands, having part of Johole on its eastern frontier, and Rumbowe on the north and west. The boundary, with Rumbowe, was never clearly defined till the 9th of January, 1833, when Mr. Westerhout, the superintendent of Naning, came up to Sungie Siput, a village near the frontier, to meet the Rumbowe chiefs, with a view of determining the respective boundaries of the two territories.

An agreement was here drawn up, and signed by the Raja Muda, the Panghúlu of Rumbowe, Maharaja Selah, the eight Sukus, by Mr. Wester-

hout, and two witnesses on the part of Government.

The boundary line agreed on commences at Qualla Sungie Jerni; thence to Bukit Bertram; thence to Bukit Jelatang to Bukit Puttus, thence to Jirat Gunjie, Lubo Talan, Duson Feringie, Duson Kapar, and Ulu Songa, to Bukit Puttus. By this arrangement, a spot fertile in tin, and a small access of territory, have been gained to Government. The boundary of Naning, with Johole, is a line extending from Bukit Puttus to Bukit Battang Malacca, and terminating at Mount Ophir. The Malacca line commences at Mount Ophir, and thence taking a south-westerly direction, passes through Rambotan Gading, Battu Bakawat, Bukit Lansat, Bukit Badoré, Bukit Panchoor, Pankalan Sompit, Qualla Sungiepattye, Campong Hodia Pacho, Pondo Sassam, Pondo Panjang, Pondo Battu, Bukit Haya Arang, Bukit Pembagian, Ramoan China Kechil, and Tebbing Tingish. From Tebbing Tingih to Qualla Londu the Rumbowe river is the boundary between Naning and Rumbowe, to Qualla Sungie Jerni.

The surface of the country is undulating, now rising into high knolls, thickly clothed with jungles, and now sinking into hollows, or rather flats, about seventy or eighty yards wide, where

the water lodges in the rainy season, and which either form swamps or paddy-grounds, according to the industry or otherwise of the Natives in their vicinity. The soil on the high grounds is red, and gravelly generally; on the flats, soft and whitish. Pipe-clay is found in some parts, as also a rich black soil.

Naning has only three streams, scarcely to be called rivers. Sungie Rumbowe, Sungie Malacca, and Sungie Londu; of these the Rumbowe stream is much the largest. It enters Naning from Rumbowe, near Qualla Marabu, whence it makes its exit into the Malacca territory, a little below the place where it receives the waters of Sungie Londu. At this point it is nearly sixteen yards broad, and passable for troops in dry weather. During the rains, it is not fordable. Trees thrown across here and there are the only bridges; boats come up, but depth of water cannot be relied upon. This and the Lingie river unite below Sempong, a tongue of land belonging to Rumbowe, which is formed by the division of the two streams, about six miles below the north-western extremity of Naning, and nearly midway between it and the sea, where it empties itself, dividing the Malacca and Salangore territories about twenty-four miles to the northward of Malacca. Up to Sempong its mean breadth is 180 fathoms; sound-

ings at the mouth (high water and spring tides) seven and eight fathoms. The tide barely reaches to the Naning territory.

Sungie Londu is a small stream taking its rise at Bukit Kayu Arang, or the Ebony Hills, in the Malacca territory. It enters Naning near Cahow, taking an almost northerly course, and emptying itself into the Rumbowe river below Si Marabu. Sungie Malacca is formed of two branches; one takes its rise in the hills of Rumbowe, the other near Battang Malacca, in Naning; they unite near Sabang, pursuing their course in a westerly direction, and quitting Naning near Sungiepattye, fall into the sea at Malacca, having an embouchure of about sixteen yards wide. In the wet season it is navigable for provision and baggage boats to Ching, in Malacca, and thence by Malayan canoes (sampans) to Sabang, in Naning. Throughout Naning it is fordable in dry weather, but not in the rains; it is crossed at short distances by the common rude Malay foot-bridges. Its bed is generally sand and gravel; the banks grassy and sandy; in some parts steep. Besides these streams, there are many small rivulets not worthy of notice.

The native roads are merely foot-paths, cut and cleared constantly by the Malays as they pass along with their parangs, which a Malay is seldom or never without. There are vestiges of a road

here, cut by Colonel Farquhar, from Malacca to Sabang in Naning, which it enters near Malacca Pinda; but from neglect, it is little better than the native foot-paths. The Malay roads run over the bunds of the paddy fields, which frequently break down, leaving a deep puddle, over which it is usual to throw a bamboo or two as a bridge; and even streams and rivulets boast no better bridges than a couple of trees felled carelessly across their course, with sometimes a slight bamboo for a hand-rail. These paths, if little travelled on by the Malays, are liable to serious obstruction, particularly in a military point of view, from the numerous forest-trees blown down by the wind, or falling through the decay of age. I have seen, in a remote part of this country, the path as effectually barricaded by this accidental obstruction, as if a body of Malays had been at work to cut off our communications.

A military road of communication between Tabu, (the wretched capital of Abdul Syed, situated nearly on the frontier of Naning,) was opened during the operations in 1832, following in parts the old Malay foot-path. It enters Naning at Sungiepattye, passes through Alor Gajah, where a small star-fort, called Fort Lismore, was erected in 1834, by order of Brigadier Wilson, C. B., for the protection of the military detach-

ment there, over the shoulder of the hill of Bukit sa Booseh to Tabu, where it terminates about three and a half miles from "Kubur Feringie," (the ancient tomb of a Portuguese in the jungle,) on the Rumbowe frontier, to which territory a path through a dense forest leads.

The Tabu road was constructed in a manner well suited to the service for which it was designed; a thick and lofty forest has been cleared to the extent of from seventy to one-hundred paces on either side, precluding the possibility of trees falling or being felled across. The low underwood in the intermediate space was burnt, so as to afford the lurking Malay no shelter. Brushwood and branches of trees, secured on either side by strong piles, and layers of gravel thrown over the whole, enabled the guns and provision carts to pass with ease the numerous sawahs and marshes.

From the Naning road, at its entrance into the Naning territory at Sungiepattye, branches off another, in a direction nearly due west, leading to Sungie Baru, a cultivated district, distant about nine miles. This has been constructed since the cessation of hostilities. Another road to Sabang, (one of the most populous places in Naning, and a military post, about four miles from Alor Gajah,) goes off to the east. From

Sabang there is a bullock road about eight miles long to Tabung, the most easterly of the Naning outposts; also a bandy road to Tabu, which joins the road from Alor Gajah, shortly after entering the Tabu lines. From Sabang are also roads to the outposts of Qualla, Ina, and Pellowe, three or four miles distant from it.

Water is plentiful, and may easily be found two or three feet below the surface, on the slopes of the rising grounds. It is often of an acidulous mineral taste, but is not accounted unhealthy by Europeans.

There is a hot sulphureous mineral spring near Sabang, the water of which is esteemed by the Malays very beneficial in cutaneous diseases. I have rarely passed without seeing some diseased native laving his contaminated person in the steaming liquid. There is also a hot-spring in the jungle near Tabu: the natives say that the temperature of this is much higher than that of the Sabang spring. I have not been able to discover that a volcano has ever existed in Naning, nor are there any volcanic remains visible.

Tabu is the only decidedly unhealthy post to Europeans; of the officers who remained there any length of time, one alone escaped fever. Its situation is not low, but it is surrounded by lofty hills, covered with jungle, which perhaps by im-

peding the free circulation of air, may contribute to its character for unhealthiness; a character given to it also by the natives themselves. The climate of the interior is not favourable to the long occupation of the country by Indian troops; at all events they would require frequent reliefs. Fever and an obstinate ulcer attacking the legs, are their most formidable enemies; a slight scratch without attention, being difficult to heal. The ulcer attacks Malays also; they call it Tokah; they also have a species of leprosy called Kusta, and a disease like cholera, called Angin taawan, or the "Wind of Pestilence;" both of these last are deemed incurable at Naning, and the unfortunate sufferer is generally deserted by his friends in his greatest need, or driven into the jungle to perish as an outcast. Katumbohan, or small-pox, is prevalent. I have not heard that inoculation or vaccination is known to the natives; at all events they are not practised; refrigerating medicines are used.

Naning was taken possession of, together with the Malacca lands, by the Portuguese, shortly after the capture of Malacca by Alphonso Albuquerque, in 1511. Previously it had formed an integral part of the dominions of Muhammed Shah II., Sultan of Malacca; who, on the fall of his capital, fled to Muar, thence to Pahang, and finally to Johore, where he established a kingdom.

Naning remained nominally under the Portuguese, till 1641-2, when, with Malacca it fell into the hands of the Dutch, and their allies the sovereigns of Johore and Achin. According to a Malay manuscript in my possession, "The Hollanders made many bonds with the king of Johore, on golden paper, including numerous divisions of shares and territory," among which are specified the interior boundaries of Malacca, viz. "From the mouth of the Cassang to its source southerly; from the mouth of the Lingie river, to Ramoan China, northerly; to Bukit Bruang, Bakowe Rendah, Ramonia Chondong, Padang Chachar, Duson Mariah, Duson Kappar, Ulu Malacca to the source of the Cassang river. Done, written and sealed by the Hollanders and King of Johore, on paper of gold."

Valentyn, however, asserts, that the first article of the Treaty between the Dutch and the King of Johore was, that the town be given up to the Dutch, and the land to the King of Johore; reserving, however, to the Dutch, so much territory about the town as is required, and licence to cut fire-wood. Be this as it may, Dutch policy soon extended the meaning of this into the possession of an area of nearly fifty miles by thirty, which comprised the whole of Naning up to the frontiers of Rumbowe and Johore.

This line, in latter days, has been extended beyond Bukit Bruang, and Ramoan China, to the left bank of the Lingie river, which it now comprehends.

The Dutch, on their taking possession of Malacca, in 1641, found Naning under the government of the Ampat Suku, or heads of the four tribes, into which the inhabitants are divided. In the Dutch Governor General, Anthonij Van Dieman's administration, an agreement was made, by the first Land-voogd, or Governor of Malacca, Johan Van Twist, on the 15th of August, 1641, with the chiefs of Naning and the neighbouring villages; by which the latter promised fidelity to the States General and the Company, and abjured their former engagements with the Spaniards and Portuguese. The property of all persons dying without issue to be divided between the Company and the Native Chiefs; that of persons guilty of murder, to be appropriated, half for the use of the Company, and the remainder for their heirs. The Company to be entitled to one-tenth of the produce, and to a duty of ten per cent. on the sale of estates. Such taxes to be collected by native servants, who will be rewarded by Governor General A. Van Dieman.

In the old Dutch records, preserved in the archives of Malacca, we find, in 1643, the inhabi-

tants of Naning and Rumbowe, particularly those of the districts of Mullikey, Perling, and Inak, noticed as being in a very rebellious and disorderly state, refusing to obey their chief, Raja Merah, the first Panghúlu of Naning, on account of the banishment by the Dutch of one of their chiefs, named Meni Tuan Lelah Reawan, from the territory of Malacca; and complaining that the administration of justice was not according to their customs.

In 1644, the Dutch government resolved to depute commissioners to Naning, in order to restore tranquillity, to take a survey of Naning and its districts, to apportion lands to the inhabitants, (who, it is worthy of note, are always styled "Manikábowes," or settlers from Menángkábowe, in Sumatra,) to infuse into their minds the advantages resulting from habits of industry, to turn their attention to agricultural pursuits, to persuade them to "depart from the state of barbarism under which they then laboured," and finally, to furnish Raja Merah, the chiefs and inhabitants there, with instructions how they were to conduct themselves towards the government of Malacca, in respect to the administration of justice in civil cases, and above all, to take cognizance of every criminal case that occurred there.

To fulfil the objects of this mission, govern-

ment selected senior merchant Snoueq. But citizen Snoueq, the minute dryly observes, "brings in various excuses, saying he is unwell, and that the road to Naning is impassable, that his legs are bad, and that he is not proficient in the Malay language."

Shortly after this, Snoueq still persisting in his objections, an expedition is ordered to proceed to Naning, under Captain S. Alexander Mendos and Antonio Gonio Louis Pinjero, consisting of fifty Netherlands, and sixty Malacca soldiers, with twenty peons, to convey provisions and baggage, and a number of boats and boatmen—in all 180 men.

The following is the official account of the mission, written by the Governor Jeremias Van Vliet, who, it appears, proceeded himself to Naning in the room of Snoueq.

"On the third day, about three hours before the sun went down, we arrived with the whole retinue at Pankallang Naning, as far as is navigable for a boat. Here we rested during the night, and found Raja Merah, with some of the principal chiefs of Naning, who shewed us every mark of respect and obedience.

"Early on the morning of the fourth, we marched forward with the whole retinue, through forests, to Melicque (Mullikey). We reached

this place at ten o'clock, with the principal part of the troops, and awaited the arrival of our baggage. After taking some refreshments, we proceeded on our journey to Naning, and arrived at this place two hours before the rising of the sun. Raja Merah, with some of the principal chiefs of Naning, and a great concourse of people, came to receive us and pay their homage. They conducted us to Naning, and had a band of musicians marching before us.

"The inhabitants of Naning and of the other districts subject to us, came to offer us their homage. Thus every thing promised a favourable result to the object of our mission. The chiefs and inhabitants of Naning had constructed a sumptuous bungalow for our reception, and shewed us all possible attention and respect.

"We received their compliments with every token of good will, and so we passed the day.

"In Naning we desired Raja Merah and the chiefs to be called; and pointed out to them the atrocities which had been committed by them and the inhabitants during the past year, viz. that murder and robbery were common practices with them, arising from no other cause than a state of ignorance and idleness. It was therefore advisable, that they should devote their time to agricultural pursuits, such as planting a more con-

siderable quantity of pepper or paddy. Were they to lead an industrious life, it would prove much to their benefit; malignity would then, no doubt, be entirely eradicated."

"The following points were laid before them:—

"1st.—That Inchi Woddat, one of the chiefs and head men at Melicque (Mullikey), having proved himself unworthy of that situation, and a person on whom no confidence could be placed, it was required, that they should select three qualified persons at Melicque, out of which number, one would be chosen to fill the vacant seat.

"2d.—That they should keep the river, from Pankallang Naning, to Pankallang Nauwar, clear, and make it navigable for prows.

"3d.—That one-tenth of the produce of the Naning rice-fields should be paid annually, either in kind or money.

"4th.—That Raja Merah, with the chiefs, should come down in person, or depute others to pay their homage." (The records here are almost obliterated.)

"5th.—That Raja Merah shall invite by beat of gong, all the inhabitants of the districts subject to us, in order to ascertain if they have any complaints to bring forward against Raja Merah, or the other chiefs; and if they have no reason for

complaint, notice should be taken of their disobedience.

"6th.—That we should furnish Raja Merah and the chiefs with instructions, and point out to them the line of conduct which they should invariably pursue, and how far their authority extends in the administration of civil cases.

"These points having been translated into the Malay language, we had them proclaimed and made known to all people, through the medium of Raja Merah, who informed us, that the inhabitants accepted these rules with due deference, but made some difficulty in complying with the contents of that paragraph which enjoined them to keep the river clear, for they considered themselves as his (Raja Merah's) subjects, not his slaves. Raja Merah further stated, that the limited authority with which he was invested, was not calculated to command obedience. But it was our wish, that Raja Merah confer with the chiefs and inhabitants on the matter, and inform them, that what we had resolved was principally to promote their interest. The clearing away on the banks of the river was a service which could be performed by four persons, and in a short space of time. The banks of the river should be cleared, widened, and made navigable, from

Naning to the town; but they were required to keep the river clear only as far as Pankallang Nauwar; from thence it will be the business of our inhabitants to preserve the cleanliness of the river. They ought to recollect, that this improvement would, in a great measure, conduce to the prosperity of Naning; and how convenient it would be felt by every body in the transport of paddy, sirih, and other produce. Perceiving their objection, we desired that the inhabitants should be summoned by beat of gong, in order that they might consider this object more attentively. Raja Merah and chiefs did accordingly hold a consultation with the inhabitants. We directed Alexander Mendos to be present at this meeting, and to inform himself of every circumstance which might occur; and instructed him how he should conduct himself towards these obstinate people.

"Alexander Mendos having appeared in the meeting, and hearing some of the Manikábowes making difficulties to obey the order regarding the clearing of the river, alleging that their houses were too far situated from the river, replied, that they should not murmur at such a trivial labour, considering that the Governor himself had left the town, and come up here for the purpose of punishing the wicked and disobedient, and pro-

tecting the innocent and faithful; it would therefore be very imprudent to resist his wishes. Mendos and Raja Merah, impressed these salutary precepts on the minds of the inhabitants of the villages subject to us, who with one consent and loud voice exclaimed, 'The will of the Governor of Malacca be done,' and promised to be obedient to all his orders. In this manner did Raja Merah, the chiefs, and the inhabitants declare their willingness to accede to the rules which we had prescribed to them.

"We directed all the men in the districts subject to us to approach our dwelling, and demanded to know if they were satisfied with Raja Merah and the other chiefs, and would submit to their orders. If any person should be injured, and could procure no redress from them," (here again the record is illegible.)

"We addressed the people in such a manner that they unanimously declared, that they had nothing to bring forward against Raja Merah, and consented to place themselves under his control. We have in consequence read, in the Dutch, Portuguese, and Malay languages, in the presence of the inhabitants of the districts subject to us, viz. Naning, Melicque, Inak, and Perling, the commission appointing Raja Merah our sub-

ordinate chief over the above-mentioned districts; and the tenor of the commission is noted down in the accompanying copy.

"Raja Merah had selected three persons from each of the districts of Melicque and Perling; out of which one will be chosen, in order to increase the number of the members of the council in Naning; and each of them should be a headman over a village.

"Whilst Raja Merah, the chiefs, and the inhabitants were holding a council, we took a survey of the lands and paddy-fields in Naning, and proceeded nearly so far as the forests of Rumbowe. It is indeed a fine and fertile land, bounded on both sides by forests. It is to be desired, that Malacca could possess such advantages. In the districts of Naning, there is much waste and uncultivated land, which is well adapted for planting pepper. If we could put our plan into execution, it is certain that the Company will derive great profit in time.

"After the trial of many delinquents, there was one man, named Uang Caya Per Mattu Merah, who was once one of the chiefs at Naning; who, having evinced symptoms of disaffection, proceeded to Rumbowe, where he had spent his days in cock-fighting and gaming. This

man was ordered to be apprehended, and fined in our council, with the concurrence of Raja Merah, in the sum of fifty crusadoes.

"The enormous crime committed by Contella Lascarra, late headman at Perling, for which he had been imprisoned here for a length of time, was also investigated in the presence of the said chiefs. He was condemned to pay a fine of one hundred crusadoes. In failure of this, he shall be scourged and banished the territory of Malacca.

"The instructions, which we intended to furnish Raja Merah with, being ready, we intimated the tenor of the same to him and the other chiefs, and they appeared to be perfectly satisfied with them, which gave us every reason to hope, that they would promote the happiness and comfort of the people, and increase the confluence of the Manikábowes, when the villagers of other places shall hear Naning is become a well-regulated government, and the character of the inhabitants peaceable and industrious, and that vice is severely punished.

"Every thing at Naning has turned out to our wishes. Raja Merah and the chiefs were very submissive, and the inhabitants very obedient to our orders."

Governor Van Vliet had not long to felicitate

himself on the submissiveness and obedience of the inhabitants of Naning; for shortly after his return to Malacca, they took a prominent part in an extensive conspiracy formed against the Dutch government, in the denouement of which two Dutch officers lost their lives by the hands of the Natives.

The following paragraph from the records gives us an insight into the method employed by the Dutch at this period, of "persuading the refractory Manikábowes to return from the state of barbarism under which they had the misfortune to labour."

Well might Lord Minto, the conqueror of Java, indignantly commit to the flames those instruments of torture alluded to in the paragraph, and so long a disgrace to a city over which the British flag waved.*

RECORDS.—"Malacca, 16th August, 1644.

"What an abominable treason and conspiracy have we not discovered in Naning in the conduct of five Malays, named Inchi Itam, Bongsoe, Sillap, Poetara, and a slave of the name of Patchium, who had been compelled by his master to join the

* His Lordship, after the taking of Java, presented Malacca with a full length portrait of himself, in which the burning of the instruments of torture is represented. The picture was formerly suspended in the Stadt-house, but now adorns the Court-house of Malacca.

conspirators against Malacca. We had often trusted Itam with letters to the chiefs at Naning and Rumbowe, but he has performed our commands in a very unfaithful manner, by laying secret schemes with the said chiefs against us, and three different times he swore fealty in favour of them, against our Government, that he would not discover and make known to us any plan, which our enemy might project against our interest, and if we should purpose to despatch a force thither, that he would give timely notice to them of our design. Moreover, he had undertaken to lead 1,000 Manikábowes to Malacca, in order to attack and destroy the settlement. All this he did, and dissembled with us. Inchi, Sillap, Bongsoe, and Poetara, were, for a considerable length of time, our inhabitants, and were together with the troops when Captains Forsenberg and Menie were murdered; since which they have taken up arms against our Government, and threatened to murder us in our council chamber, and to stop short of no violence against any one who would oppose them. They did also pledge that they would set the town on fire, and retire to the country with their wives and children. We were long of intention to punish these traitors, but have, with the advice of our council, deferred the execution thereof until the return of our Commissioner

Snoueq from Johore. But the following is now resolved:—

"That Inchi Itam be tortured to death, and his body be exposed on a gibbet.

"That Sillap and Bongsoe be decapitated, and their bodies divided into four parts, and exposed in several conspicuous places.

"That Poetara be beheaded, his head placed upon a gibbet, his body separated, and exposed in several conspicuous places. He has confessed himself to be guilty of horrid crimes.

"That Patchium, the slave, be acquitted, and set at large, as it is proved that he has not taken up arms against us, and has been constrained by his master to join the said conspirators. Moreover, he was the medium of discovering the conspiracy.

"God preserve Malacca, and all states and fortresses from such evil designing people.

"The villages of Naning and Rumbowe continue in a rebellious state, the blockade of the river Panagy (the Rumbowe and Naning branch of the Lingie river) is still carried on by us. Some days past, two Rumbowe people have been seized by our inhabitants in the river Muar. We had them executed; their heads were placed on stakes, and their bodies on gibbets.

"God grant that we may apprehend some more

of these traitors, they shall all be dealt with in this way!

"By the disasters which had taken place at Naning, the continuance of the rebellion, excited by the insolent Manikábowes, and the diffidence subsisting between this republic and the states of Johore, the minor trade of this place has of late been decreasing, the supply of all necessaries prevented, and the plantations along the river-side deserted and abandoned; from fear of the Manikábowes, nobody would venture to cultivate their gardens in those places. The revenue of the settlement has been in consequence diminished, and the inhabitants very much disheartened. Even the people in the surrounding states are not exempt from alarm on this account. We shall find it therefore expedient to conclude a permanent peace with the states of Johore, by which means it will be in our power to punish the Naning and Rumbowe people. We shall endeavour to treat all the subjects of the chief of Johore in a friendly manner, and permit them to visit our settlement without molestation."

For a considerable period afterwards the Dutch experienced much annoyance from the daring aggressions of these hardy Natives, who advanced in hordes within a musket shot of the fort, and up to the very borders of the entrenchments, plunder-

ing and laying waste the gardens and houses in the vicinity, and destroying the plantations of Bukit China. Government, at last, though not without considerable expense and bloodshed, succeeded in restoring tranquillity.

In 1651, the Panghúlu Sri Raja Merah was publicly thanked for his services in the apprehension of a runaway slave from Malacca, guilty of murder. In 1652, he, with his three sons and two of the principal chiefs of Naning, came down to Malacca, and presented to Government a quantity of pepper, as an "ordinary tribute." On this occasion, he was honoured in return by the gift of a Malay sarasah, one piece of red cloth, one of white cloth, and a piece of white bafta.

Inferior presents were likewise bestowed upon his three sons and the two chiefs.

In November, 1652, we find the following minute, which goes to disprove the power of inflicting capital punishment, without reference to the Malacca Government, a power of late years arrogated to himself by the ex-Panghúlu Dholl Syed.

"Pursuant to our order of the 30th October last, a letter was written in reply by Mr. Emanuel Du Moulyn to the chiefs of Naning, conveying our sentiments and surprise at the atrocities which had been of late perpetrated at Naning, and the

summary manner in which the offender was put to death by the commands of the chiefs in the case of of Raja Merah's son-in-law, who attempted to destroy his wife and father-in-law. This, we must confess, is a horrid deed; but at all events, the offender should have been delivered into our hands, and a regular course of trial in our court should have been instituted against him. But when we take into consideration the sincere contrition expressed at what has been done, we could not but impute it to ignorance, and it is therefore proper that we should not notice it this time with that severity and censure, which, under any other circumstances, it would be our bounden duty, as lord paramount, to exercise.

"We observe that there is another individual of the name of Inchi Jumat, who has shewn many instances of insubordination, and is fully proved guilty of outrageous violence, and to have attempted the life of his chief at Naning. We have resolved in council, at the suggestion of the chiefs and inhabitants of Naning, and places subordinate thereto, that the said Inchi Jumat be put to death, and sincerely trust, that after the extinction of such a dangerous character as the said Jumat, the district of Naning will revert to its former tranquillity and happiness."

The subjoined document, dated 27th May,

1664, bears upon the collection of the duty on the produce of Naning.

"The captain of Naning and the chiefs preferred in council a complaint against Maria Silvens, collector of the customs on Sirih brought from Naning, that he has not attended to the usual mode of levying the duty on this article.

"The measure which it seems he has adopted is this;—after receiving the duty, he would detain the people about five days, until the quantity collected by him had been disposed of; by which means, the Sirih remaining on their hands became unfit for consumption, and consequently not saleable. Through his negligence, the Bongsal, (revenue store-house,) in which this article is deposited, and wherein the Naning people are compelled to take shelter at night, has become very dilapidated; nor has he troubled himself in the least to put the building in proper repair for the accommodation of these persons, who were under the necessity of violating the prescribed rules, by taking up their lodgings in different parts of the town, which expedient has been attended with much inconvenience and disagreement amongst the Naning people.

"With a view to preserve good order and tranquillity, another individual shall be appointed in the room of Maria Silvens, who, it would ap-

pear, is also desirous to tender his resignation. We have therefore deemed it advisable, at the suggestion of Raja Merah and the chiefs of Naning, to nominate Anthony Pinjero and Manuel Frere, collectors of the duty on Sirih brought from Naning. The president of our council having observed that Manuel Frere is more conversant in Malay language and customs of those people than the first mentioned individual, has considered it expedient to propose him for the performance of this duty, in which motion we unanimously concurred, and have consequently nominated the said Manuel Frere provisionally to execute the functions of a collector of the aforesaid duty, and superintendent of the Bongsal until our further orders.

"Early in 1680, the agreement made in 1641 by Van Twist, was renewed during Governor-General Rijhlof Van Goen's administration by the then land-voogd of Malacca, Jacob Jarissoon Pits, 'with the ambassadors of Naning and Rumbowe, on behalf of the king of Johore,' with these additions, viz., 'that a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem, be paid to the Company on the sales of the pepper.' The Company promise to give an adequate subsistence to the chief at Naning, besides one-tenth of the collected revenue.

"Each boat coming down from Naning will

pay a duty of one crusadoe to the Company." It appears by this treaty that the custom of dividing the property of the natives of Naning dying without heirs, was introduced by the Portuguese, prior to the capture of Malacca by the Dutch; we also find that all slaves flying from Naning to Malacca with intent of embracing the Christian faith will be emancipated, and the value of the same will be paid to their owners.

The Naning people likewise bound themselves not to trade with foreign nations, but to convey their merchandise down the river to Malacca.

In 1703, the Malacca government appointed Sri Maharaja Juara Magat, Panghúlu of Naning, for a service done to the king of Johore, which will be shortly mentioned, and in consequence of the incapacity and infirmities of the then Panghúlu Sri Raja Merah, who had forwarded to government the Company's signet, which he had been permitted to use as a token of his delegated authority.

The following are the instructions received by the commissioners deputed for the installation of the new chief at Naning. They present a curious specimen of Dutch policy.

"Malacca, 5th May, 1703.

"Instructions given by Bernard Phoonsen,

Governor and Director of the Town and fortress of Malacca in council, to Peter Anthony Figaredo, burgher, and Inchi Arum, head man of the Malays at this place, for their guidance in respect to the installation of the newly nominated chief at Naning, Sri Raja Merah, and the conduct which they should pursue during their stay at that place.

"1st.—On your arrival at Naning, you shall wait upon the Orang Kaya, Sri Raja Merah, in our name, and present him the accompanying letter, and congratulate him on his retiring from office, a privilege which we have granted him at his own request, and in consideration of his advanced age; and inform him that his brother has been nominated to fill the vacant office, for which he has received the arms of the East India Company as a mark of his authority.

"2nd.—You shall require the chiefs at Naning to pay all due respect and submission to the authority who holds the said seals, and with regard to the navigation of the river by boats, they shall invariably conduct themselves as we have desired.

"3rd.—Two days after your arrival you shall nominate and appoint the new chief in the name of the East India Company, and command all persons to pay every respect, and shew due sub-

mission to him; in failure thereof, they shall be liable to punishment.

"4th.—You shall diligently inquire into the case of Seathum and his followers, in order that we may be thoroughly informed whether he has been justly or unjustly accused, as we have heard repeated complaints against the present reigning chief; but you must not omit to caution Seathum, as well as his followers, to attend to all orders and requisitions enforced by the East India Company.

"5th.—That the sentence which shall be pronounced by them against an offender, must in the first instance, be approved of and confirmed by us, before it can be put into execution. Such sentences are also liable to be cancelled and altered by us, and our will must be punctually attended to.

"6th.—They shall apprehend and send to town all evil disposed persons and offenders, who may from time to time take shelter in the districts of Naning. If resistance should be made on the part of these persons, they shall use violence in seizing them, for we would rather see them put to death than that one should escape with impunity.

"7th.—No individual from town, or plantations on the river side, shall be permitted to proceed to Naning without previous intimation being given

to the Shahbander, or Malay translator, who will issue on application, a written permission to that effect; and we direct that all persons, not furnished with such licence, be ordered to quit Naning, and return to the place from whence they came.

"8th.—The inhabitants of Naning shall be permitted to export and bring to market in town, all sorts of minerals, timbers, fruits, &c., except Sirih leaves. Our reason for forbidding the importation of this article has been several times conveyed to them. In return they shall be permitted to take to Naning from hence all sorts of provisions and necessaries."

The following account of the circumstances attending Juara Magat's elevation is related on native authority.

Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah, King of Johore, wrote a letter to the chief of the Malays at Malacca, then Capitan Malayu, Dattu Arum, stating, that one of his subjects, Ganta Delangit, had carried off one of the royal concubines to Malacca, and desiring him most earnestly to render assistance in wiping off this stain on his honour. The Capitan, on the receipt of this epistle, summoned Juara Magat from Naning, and ordered him to seek out Delangit, to put him to death, and to bring down the concubine of the sultan to Malacca.

To this, it is said, Juara readily assented, but requested a kris from the Capitan for the purpose, who gave him the choice of the whole of his weapons, and on Juara's not finding one "lucky" enough, desired him to go to the armourer's shop in town, and make his own selection. Juara turned into a Chinese shop, near the Tranqueira gate, where, after rejecting all the inlaid and beautifully damasked weapons offered him by the armourer, selected an old rusty-looking kris, blackened by the smoke and resin of the dammer torches, to the trimming of which it had been constantly applied. He then returned to the Capitan, and informed his astonished employer that the weapon he held in his hand was the kris destined to pour out the blood of Delangit as a sacrifice to the insulted honour of the sultan.

With this wonderful weapon (fit companion for the enchanted sword of King Arthur) Juara returned to Naning. But Delangit, hearing of his purpose, had already fled thence to Muar, and concealed himself with the concubine amid the fastnesses of that wild country. Thither the persevering Juara tracked his victim, and coming up with him at the mouth of the river, plunged the fatal steel deep into his heart.

The concubine he conveyed in safety to Malacca, whence she was sent, with an account of

what had occurred, by the Capitan, to the Sultan of Johore. The sultan recommended Juara to the Dutch government, who made him Panghúlu of Naning, and bestowed on him, as a mark of royal favour, two slaves, a man and woman, (probably Jakuns, from whom the Suku or tribe, at present known by the appellation of Tiga Nenek, sprang); a sword, termed Ularkenyang, "the satiated serpent," a silk baju or vest, and lastly, a tract of the Gominchi territory, hence called Pembasu Tangan. To the Capitan Malayu was given a piece of land, extending from Kleybang to the Sungie Baru river, and inland to Bertam. The title, Sri Raja Merah, the sword, Baju, and a genealogical book, generally preserved in the families of Malayan princes and noblemen, called Silselah, have descended to Juara's successors as Kabesaran, or regalia.

Juara Magat was succeeded, agreeably to the Menángkábowe law of succession, by his sister's son, Kukah; to Kukah succeeded Eangarang, or Mulana Garang, Jangot, Tambah, and Anjak, or Bukit Jootor. The present ex-panghúlu, Abdul Syed, or Dholl Syed, succeeded his uncle Anjak, in 1801, when he was confirmed in his office by the British resident at Malacca, Colonel Taylor.

When Abdul Syed had control in Naning, the

Kabesaran of his ancestors was kept in a house-shaped chest, and was only publicly produced once a-year. Its contents were perfumed with the smoke arising from a censer of odoriferous gums, and washed with water and rice-flour by the sacred hands of the Panghúlu himself. At an exhibition of them, the superstitious natives, not even daring to look upon these miraculous relics, fell prostrate, with their foreheads pressed to the earth, exclaiming, "Dowlet! dowlet!"

The properties ascribed to the sword are those generally known by Malays under the term Betuáh, which, among other meanings, has that of any thing imparting invulnerableness and irresistibility to the wearer. Secret enemies are detected, by their involuntarily trembling in the august presence of the weapon. The silk baju, it is believed, will fit none but the Panghúlu, or the person destined to become his successor. To this day, it is firmly credited by many of the Malays, that the elder brother of Abdul Syed was rejected from the Panghúluship solely on account of his inability to get his head through the neck of the vest, which is represented to be so small, as scarcely to admit of the insertion of two fingers.

The truth of the matter is, that he was set aside by the Ampat Suku, on account of his

unfitness and unpopularity. How the ex-Panghúlu contrived to slip his large head through the silken vest must still remain matter of conjecture to the learned.

In 1795, the English took possession of Malacca and Naning; of the latter, upon the same terms as the Dutch had held possession. In 1802, Colonel Taylor, the Resident at Malacca, made a treaty with the ex-Panghúlu and the Ampat Suku. Among other stipulations, it was agreed on that the Panghúlu, chiefs, Menángkábowes, or Malays of Naning, do pay one-tenth of the produce of the soil to the East India Company; but in consideration of their poverty, it is resolved that, instead of paying the tenth, the Panghúlu come in person annually to Malacca, and present 400 gantangs of paddy to government. And farther, that "the Panghúlu and chiefs promise, in the name of the said community of Naning, that whenever the chief rulers happen to resign the government, or any misfortune befal them, they shall in such case propose one of the nearest and most qualified of his family to the Governor of Malacca, for his successor; but it is not expected that such a proposal must always meet the governor's approbation; on the contrary, it is optional with him to appoint whom he thinks proper."

Colonel Farquhar became Resident of Malacca, in 1803, and in 1809, reserved to the British government the power of inflicting capital punishment on criminals in Naning. The duty of one crusadoe, on boats coming down from Naning, was withdrawn.

In 1818, the Dutch again assumed possession of Malacca. In 1822, Governor Timmermann Thyssen had caused a statement of the land produce at Naning to be drawn out, and transmitted it to the Netherlands government at Batavia, with the ulterior view of levying the tenth. But before their decision was received, the British flag was again hoisted at Malacca. This took place in April, 1825. Up to this period, the 400 gantangs, in lieu of the tenth, had been annually paid by the different Panghúlus of Naning. In 1827, the Panghúlu and Ampat Suku came down to Malacca, to pay their respects to the new resident, Mr. Garling, who had been appointed in 1826. In 1828, Mr. Lewis, assistant resident, proceeded to Tabu, the capital of Naning, with the view of making arrangements with the chiefs for putting that territory on the same footing as the Malacca lands were, according to Mr. Fullerton's plan, already described. Mr. Lewis was empowered to offer the Panghúlu the sum of 600 Spanish dollars, and each of the

Ampat Suku, 50 per annum, provided they would consent to transfer their lands to government, in order that the tenth might be levied upon them in the same manner as upon the Malacca lands. These proposals met with a refusal.

In 1829, Mr. Church, deputy resident, was sent to Sungie-pattye, on the Naning frontier, to confer with the Panghúlu, with instructions to make known to him, that Naning was an integral part of Malacca, and that it was intended by Government, to subject it also to the general regulations affecting the rest of the Malacca territory, but directed no immediate levy of the duty. He was further instructed to take a census, and to make it known, that all offenders, except in trivial matters, must be sent down in future to Malacca for trial. Mr. Church, on the part of Government, offered the Panghúlu and Ampat Suku pensions as a compensation. The census was allowed to be taken, but the rest of these conditions met with an absolute negative.

When Mr. Fullerton arrived, he wrote to the Panghúlu, who had not presented himself with the annual tribute, summoning him to Malacca, but without effect. An expedition was then proposed to be sent to chastise the sturdy chief; but deferred, pending a reference to the Supreme Government. The Panghúlu still further committed

himself by the forcible and unjustifiable seizure of a Duson, at Panchur, within the Malacca boundary, the hereditary property of Inchi Surin. This man preferred his complaint to government, and in consequence another message was dispatched.

The Panghúlu's answer set forth a determination to retain the Duson, affirming it to be his own property, and impeaching the right of government to interfere. A proclamation was now published, declaring, that Abdul Syed had forfeited all his claims, and was thenceforth no longer Panghúlu of Naning.

Such are the principal causes that occasioned, in 1831, the march of a small military force into Naning, whose object it was to reduce the rebellious inhabitants to obedience. It consisted of 150 rank and file of the 29th Madras Native infantry, two six-pounders, and a small detail of Native artillery, under the command of Captain Wyllie, Madras Native infantry. His subalterns were Lieutenant Milnes, Lieutenant Begbie, commanding the artillery, and Ensign Short, with Assistant-surgeon Smith. Mr. Lewis, Assistant-resident, accompanied as Commissioner. On the 6th August, the detachment marched, and after a little opposition near Kalama, the frontier of Naning, and at Bukit Sabusah, arrived on the 9th at Mullikey, a village about seventeen miles

from Malacca, and about five from Tabu, the residence of the Panghúlu, where they encamped. From this place, in consequence of the non-arrival of supplies, the increased resistance offered by the Malays, and the communication with Malacca being threatened, the detachment retreated the following day to Sungie-pattye, where it maintained its position with reinforcements from Malacca, until the 24th August, when orders for its return arrived. After destroying the heavy baggage, the retreat was commenced the same evening. They reached Malacca, after some little fighting, early the next morning, with the loss of the two guns. These were abandoned near Rumbiyah, being considered too heavy to be brought on over the felled trees which obstructed the line of march.

The Malacca territory, up to the very outskirts of the town, was thus left at the mercy of the Malays, until the arrival of reinforcements from Madras; a treaty of friendship and alliance being, in the mean time, concluded with the Rumbowe Chiefs, who had assisted the Panghúlu in his rebellion. Early in January, 1832, a force of Madras troops was organized at Malacca, under Lieutenant Colonel Herbert, consisting of the 5th regiment Native infantry, a company of rifles, two companies of sappers and miners, and a detail

of European and Native artillery. On the 2d of March, Lieutenant Colonel Herbert joined the force at Rumbiyah, about ten miles from Malacca. On the 25th the troops encamped at Sungie-pattye, a village nearly three miles in advance, after a slight resistance met with when felling the dense forest which lies between the latter place and Rumbiyah. On the 5th April, they arrived at Alor Gajeh, fifteen miles from Malacca, with the loss of an European officer, Lieutenant Harding, Madras Native infantry, who fell while bravely carrying a stockade at Ayer Mangis, not far from Kalama. Near Alor Gajeh, more stubborn resistance was again made: two officers, Ensigns Wright and Thompson of the 5th, were wounded, and the troops compelled to act on the defensive. The Malays made repeated attacks upon the camp, in repelling one of which, on the 3d of May, a promising young soldier, Ensign Walker of the 5th, was slain at the head of his men. About the middle of May, reinforcements, principally of the 46th regiment, arrived from Pinang. Offensive operations were resumed on the 21st, and Tabu fell after a slight resistance, on the 15th of the following month, Abdul Syed having barely time to carry off his family and his Kabesaran. The chest in which these relics were deposited fell into the hands of the troops. The Panghúlu

fled, first to Condong in Rumbowe, thence to Miko, and finally to Passir, in Srimenanti. His private property and lands were confiscated by Government. The Ampat Suku fled to Sabang, but finally departed thence, and sought an asylum in the neighbouring states. The two Mantris, Melana Hakim, and Gompar, who principally instigated their chief to rebellion, repaired to Miko.

Thus terminated the second Naning expedition, in which many individual acts of gallantry were displayed, both by officers and men. The general conduct of the campaign was cautious, and slow. To understand it properly, the reader must suppose the country between Rumbiyah, the base of operations, and Tabu, to be an undulating tract about twelve miles in length; the hollows consisting of swampy flats and wet rice-grounds, and the intervening swells generally covered with dense jungle. From Rumbiyah, which is itself situated in a lofty forest, the sappers and miners, protected by a covering-party from the infantry and occasionally artillery, commenced clearing the forest to the extent of from seventy to one hundred yards, on each side of the road or pathway to Tabu. The skirmishes of the covering-parties with the Malays, who as they retreated kept up a harassing, though by no means an effective fire from the cover of the jungle, the attacks on such

stockades as were here and there erected in favourable positions commanding the routes to Tabu, and an occasional detour to attack others on the flanks, formed the line of operation throughout. The advance of the force was consequently regulated by the necessarily slow progress of the clearing of the forest. The troops, therefore, did not reach Tabu, a distance of only twelve miles from Rumbiyah, in less than ten weeks, exclusive of the check at Alor Gajeh.

To the want of information displayed by the civil Commissioner regarding the country, and the resources of the Naningites, and, above all, to the misjudged economical policy of depriving the Straits Settlements of the services of a military officer exerting a general command over all the troops serving therein, I attribute, in great measure, the defeat of the first expedition, and the consequent necessity and expenses (by some estimated at ten lacs of rupees) of the second. Had such a general authority existed, a reserve, drawn from the idle detachments at the sister settlements, amply strong enough to have afforded protection to the town, and to have consummated the success so nearly achieved, of Captain Wyllie's detachment, would have been concentrated at Malacca, available for any contingency.

As matters stood, and still stand, the command-

ing officer at each settlement has authority merely over the local troops, and the detachment they furnish; consequently, in time of need, at any particular settlement, the military forces at the sister settlements are idly wasted or improperly directed, and the inevitable result has been, and always will be, defeat in the first instance, and unnecessary expenditure of the public funds in the next.

Mr. Ibbetson visited Naning in October, and created fifteen Panghúlus over the different Mukims, or parishes, into which the country is divided, and thereby abolished the ancient power of the Panghúlu and Ampat Suku. The office of these newly elected chiefs is to preserve peace and quiet in their respective Mukims; to examine into and decide matters of little importance, cases of a heavy nature are to be referred invariably to Government, and not, as formerly, to the Ampat Suku, or heads of tribes, whose authority is now at an end. They are to assist in the collection of the revenue, and apprehension of criminals; and are the authorized channels of communication between the Government and the peasantry. They derive no further emolument from their office than that part of their own lands and produce is free from duty; this exemption is also enjoyed by the four priests of each mosque.

On the 27th of October, 1832, government took the judicious step of placing Naning and its new system of internal administration under the superintendence of Mr. Westerhout, a gentleman not only eminently qualified for the task by his perfect knowledge of the Malay character and capabilities, but on account of his extensive influence with the principal persons of the district and neighbouring independent states.

The terms under which Mr. Westerhout undertook the settlement of the country are principally as follows: That he should have the whole of the tenth collected in Naning, until the 30th April, 1834, his travelling expenses to be defrayed on the usual scale. Mr. Westerhout was to introduce and establish the collection of the tenth, to make a census of the population, number of houses, &c. The quantity of grain, sown by each individual, was to be ascertained by him, also the extent of ground belonging to those individuals who are exempt from paying the duty; he was to learn the extent and nature of the lands, lately the property of Dholl Syed, and to send in a return to Government of the new Panghúlus, and of the places under their authority. The expediency of a number of wells being sunk at intervals of half a mile apart, along the Naning boundary-line with Rumbowe and Johore, was also suggested by Government.

On the 9th of January, 1833, Mr. Westerhout met the Rumbowe chiefs at Sungie Siput, near the frontiers of Rumbowe, to arrange the respective boundaries. The boundary line agreed on follows the ancient one as far as Jirat Gunjie; from thence as stated before. The Rumbowe chiefs revived some old claims to the Ramoan Chinas, stating, that in their old boundary papers, the line passed from Qualla Lingie over Bukit Bruang, and through Ramoan China, &c. to Padang Chachar. We also find the Raja of Salangore making a somewhat similar claim, in 1804, encroaching on the Company's territories, as far as Sungie Baru. (Vide Anderson's Consideration, p. 203.) They, however, readily ceded the point, when informed that, according to all European copies of former treaties, the boundary line in that quarter was the Lingie river, and that the Ramoan Chinas had always been private property under the Dutch and English Governments.

The country, since the taking of Tabu, has been occupied by the Madras troops; but as its security has progressed, and the inhabitants have become more and more settled, the force has been gradually diminished. The ex-Panghúlu came down from Srimenanti, and surrendered himself unconditionally to Government, on the 5th of February, 1834. He has been permitted to reside

at Malacca, and draw a salary from Government of 30 sicca rupees per mensem, which has been allowed on condition of his binding himself in 1000 Spanish dollars, and two sureties in 500 Spanish dollars each, that he shall be forthcoming whenever called upon. He has received much attention from all classes of the Native population at Malacca. He is a hale, stout man, apparently about fifty years of age, of a shrewd and observant disposition, though strongly imbued with the superstitions of his tribe. His miraculous power in the cure of diseases, is still firmly believed, as that of certain kings of England was at no very remote period, and his house is the daily resort of the health-seeking followers of Mohammed, Foh, Brahma, and Buddha.

The government of Naning, setting aside its connexion with the European powers at Malacca, which interfered very little in its internal organization, was at once feudal and pastoral in its character. The classification of the people into tribes, was nearly as well defined as that of the children of Israel, described by Moses in the Pentateuch.

The office of Panghúlu has been hereditary, subject to the approbation of the government at Malacca, agreeably, for the most part, to the Menángkábowe law of succession of the Anak

Perpati Sabatang, or the Tromba Pusaka Menángkábowe: the right of succession devolving upon the eldest male child of the sister; who, however, may be set aside in case of imbecility or other causes. This singular law of succession prevails throughout Naning.

The last Panghúlus of Naning were of the tribe Sa Melongan. They were generally brought down by the four heads of tribes, or Ampat Suku, to Malacca, that their election might be confirmed by the European government.

Juara Magat, the first Panghúlu of the last line, arrogated to himself the power of inflicting capital punishment on the inhabitants confided to his charge. It was exercised and abused by his successors until 1809, when it was rescinded by the British Resident, Colonel Farquhar; a gentleman whose name is held in affectionate remembrance by most of the Malays, both of Malacca and the neighbouring independent states.

The last sentence of death passed by Abdul Syed (or Dholl Syed), the ex-Panghúlu, was on a Quedah man, named Sali, in 1805. This Malay had carried off from Malacca two Chinese slaves, a man and a woman; meeting some resistance from the former, he murdered him with his kris, in the forest of Londu, and pro-

ceeded with the woman to Pila, in Srimenanti, where he sold her as a slave.

The present superintendent of Naning, Mr. Westerhout, who was an eye-witness, described to me the ceremony of his trial and execution. The criminal was conducted, bound, to Bukit Penialang, or "Execution Hill," near Tabu. The Panghúlu, the Ampat Suku, the twelve Panglimas, the Bandahara, and the Makdum, were all seated in judgment, under a cluster of Tambuseh trees, on the skirt of the hill. The witnesses were brought forward, and examined by the Panghúlu himself. The evidence against the prisoner being deemed conclusive, according to the forms of the Mohammedan law, he was sentenced, agreeably to the Adat Menángkábowe, to pay one Bhar, equivalent to 24 Sp. drs. 30 cents.) or to suffer (salang) death by the kris. Being unable to pay the fine, preparations were made for his immediate execution. The grave was dug on the spot, and he was placed, firmly bound in a sitting posture, literally on its brink. For further security, two panglimas sat on each side, while the Panglima Besar Sumun unsheathed the weapon that was to terminate the mortal existence of the trembling wretch. On the point of the poniard, the kris panjang, the panglima carefully placed a pledget

of soft cotton, which he pressed against the man's breast; a little above the right collar-bone. He then slowly passed the weapon's point through the cotton, on which he kept the fingers of his left hand firmly pressed, in a direction obliquely to the left into his body, until the projection of the hilt stopped its farther progress. The weapon was then slowly withdrawn, the panglima still retaining the cotton in its place by the pressure of his fingers, so as to staunch effectually all external effusion of blood.

The criminal, shuddering convulsively, was immediately precipitated into the grave; but on making signs for water, was raised. He had barely time to apply his lips to the cocoa-nut-shell in which it was brought, when he fell back into the grave quite dead. The earth was then hastily thrown over the body, and the assembly dispersed.

Next to the Panghúlu were the four heads or representatives of the four sukus, or tribes, into which the population of Naning was divided—

In the ex-Panghúlu's time, the head of the

Suku Sa Melongan, was	Maharaja Nunkaio,
Anak Malacca,	Andika Maharaja,
Tiga Battu,	Dattu Ambangan,
Munkal,	Orang Kaio Kechil.

There were three other sukus or tribes in

Naning, viz. those of Battu Balang, Tiga Menek, and Bodoanda. The number, however, of individuals composing these tribes became so insignificant, that they were incorporated with the four general divisions.

The office of the heads of the sukus was to assist the Panghúlus with their counsel and advice; if unanimous, they could carry the point against him. They were always consulted in any matter of importance, and affixed their seals to all deeds and agreements. Letters to the government at Malacca, and to the chief rulers of independent states, were invariably written in the name of the Panghúlu and Ampat Suku. Each was individually responsible for his tribe to the Panghúlu, in fiscal matters, in levying men, and in settling disputes.

Their revenue was derived principally from the power they enjoyed of levying fines on their own particular tribe, and from a portion allotted to them by the Panghúlu from his annual levy on each house of five gantangs of paddy. Their office was not exactly hereditary, as in the event of a demise, the vacancy was generally filled up by the other heads, with the most eligible person to be found among the surviving family of the deceased.

The Mantris were the privy councillors to the

Panghúlus, two in number. The last were Melana Hakim and Gompar. They fled with the Panghúlu to Miko, in Rumbowe, but have since returned.

The Panglimas are the war chiefs. The ex-Panghúlu had twelve, viz. Panglima Besar, Jati, Arrip, Beibas, Sultan, Tambi, Prang, Troh, two Bangsahs, Kiodin, and Raja Balang. Four of these were personally attached to the Panghúlu, viz. Panglimas Besar, Prang, Jati, and Arrip; the rest to the Ampat Suku. Besides levying men in war, and leading them to combat, building stockades, &c., the duty of a Panglima is, in peace, the apprehension of criminals, bearing official messages and letters, and making requisitions. On these occasions the Panghúlu's spear, Tombok Bandaran, was sent with them, in token of their authority. This custom prevails generally among Malayan chiefs.

The above form of government was entirely abolished on the settling of the country after the disturbances in 1832.

The principal villages are those of Sabang, Tabu, Chirana Putih, Mullikey, Battang Malacca, Sungie Siput, and Brissu; they present similar features to other Malay villages; the houses are situated near the edges of paddy fields, and invisible at a distance from the number of cocoa-nut

and other fruit-trees, by which, as well as a paggah fence, they are usually surrounded; they are straggling, and one village runs into another, in a manner from which it is impossible for a mere observer to know where the one ends, and the other commences.

Tabu, the chief village and former place of residence of the ex-Panghúlu of Naning, is reached about seven miles from our principal post, Alor Gajah, through an undulating country of jungly hills and uncultivated rice-grounds.

Nearly two and a half miles from Alor Gajah, crowning a small eminence, seventy yards to the left of the road, stood the stockade of Bukit Sabuseh, taken by Captain Poulton's detachment on the 25th May, 1832. This position commanded the Tabu road. Below the hill, on the Tabu side, lies the village of Mullikey, to which the expedition in 1831 penetrated. A mile beyond this, and upon the road itself, which gradually ascends to it, stood the stockade of Bukit Perling; thence towards Tabu, the descent of the hill is very steep, and as usual, terminates at the foot, in an uncultivated swampy rice-ground. Perling was decidedly the strongest military position taken up by the enemy during the late disturbances, and in some measure deserved the name "The Key of Tabu," bestowed on it by

the Panghúlu. From this, the country on the left exhibits traces of a better cultivation, and a once numerous population up to the Tabu lines, which consist of a long mud wall, about eight feet high, and three or four thick, strengthened by stakes and branches of trees laid parallel to each other; this wall has large rice-fields in front of it, and runs along the edges of raised ground, which bears a thick cocoa-nut tope, forming the rear, and containing a burial-ground, with several deserted houses; the lines are 840 feet long. There is a bastion-like projection in the centre, the idea of which does the Malayan "Vauban" credit. The left of the lines terminates in an epaulment, flanked by a steep hill, whilst the right ends with the tope in a deep swampy rice-ground. The rice-fields are traversed by a small rivulet, and flanked by jungle, in which were three small stockades, and on the left by steep wooded hills, at the bottom of which, near the edge of the rice-ground, runs the Alor Gajah road.

In front of the left of the lines, rises Bukit Penialangan, or Execution Hill, (so called from the ex-Panghúlu's selecting this as his "place de grêve,") commanding the lines from right to left: at some distance in rear of the burial-ground is a mosque, and the building where the Taboh, or great drum, whence the place derives its name,

was kept. The Taboh itself, now lies broken on the ground. The sacred baths of the ex-Panghúlu, little sheds, are not far from this spot. There the superstitious Malays were wont to seek a remedy for their maladies, from the holy water into which the sacred foot of the Panghúlu had been dipped.

The house of the Panghúlu was situated in the midst of an almost insulated cocoa-nut tope, and surrounded by a high stockade of bamboo, with an imperfect mud breast-work. It has been pulled down by order of Government; partly, I understand, to do away with any superstitious idea entertained by the Natives of the Panghúlu's future return to it, from the circumstance of its remaining standing.

The village of Tabu itself is a small collection of Malay houses, not amounting to thirty, surrounded as usual, by topes of fruit-trees, and shut in by lofty hills, mostly covered with forest; it is considered unhealthy, as stated before; there are many idle superstitions connected with its environs.

The Rumbowe frontier at Kubur Feringie, through Chirana Putih, the last Naning village, is distant hence about three and a half miles. Tabu is about twenty-two miles north-by-west of Malacca.

The census of 1833–4, has exceeded any of former years, amounting, to men, women, and children, 5079. In 1836, it increased to 5881, principally Malays. By Mohammedan law, a Mussulman enjoys the privilege of possessing four wives, provided he can maintain them; yet we find in Naning the number of males exceeds that of females by one hundred and sixty-one; and this in contradiction to a statement of Montesquieu, who, I believe, in defence of polygamy among Asiatics, adduces as a cause of it, the greater comparative number of females prevalent in the east. But the population of Naning, like that of other Malayan states of the Peninsula, is in a low state; and sufficient reasons for the deficiency are obvious. First, the natural unproductiveness of the females; few bearing more than six children: then the ravages of the small-pox, unchecked by inoculation or vaccination; then the immoderate and constant practice of smoking opium, by those able to purchase this pernicious drug; and lastly, perhaps, the poverty common in many of its villages. The Malays, equally with other Islams, are religiously bound to marry; hence we perceive few unmarried persons who have arrived at years of puberty. Prostitution and its attendant evils, are extremely uncommon.

I have observed many instances of longevity in

the interior; seventy, or eighty years, is an age by no means rare. An instance of 120 years has been mentioned to me, on respectable authority, occurring in the person of Dattu Puan, a native of Lubu Koppoŋg, in Naning, who died some years ago, at Sungie Baru. This truly patriarchal old man, lived to see his descendants in the fifth generation.

The Malays are despicable as an enemy in open ground, or at close quarters, (except the rare Amok,) seldom or never exposing their persons without the protection of a breast-work, or of trees; when they retreat, they plant Ranjow (a sort of wooden caltrop) in their rear. During a war which lasted two months, behind breast-works, between the chief of Rumbowe, and a confederacy of minor chiefs against him, after a large expenditure of powder, and a disastrous list of lelahs, which had burst, the bills of mortality actually amounted to two casualties. In short, their plan is one of incessantly harassing the line of communication, stockading, and retreating; the best, in fact, they could adopt in a country covered with forest, and where every tree is a strong hold, and every road a defile. A buffalo feast and the distribution of madat, a preparation of opium, generally precede their concerted attacks. The times most frequently selected for

making them, are a little before the rising, and after the going down of the moon, and during a storm at night. The particular day is fixed by their astrologers.

The inhabitants of Naning are Mohammedans of the Shafihi sect, and were converted in the thirteenth century, in the reign of Muhammed Shah, the first king of Malacca, prior to which it is supposed, that they were of the faith of Buddha; the distinctions of Shiah or Rafzi, and Sunni, so common in India and Persia, are unknown to the generality of them. Many being descendants of Arabs, their attention to the external forms of Islam is more constant and regular than is observable among the Mussulmans of India, from whom also they differ considerably in respect of the rites and ceremonies themselves; though both equally adhere to the chief articles of the Mohammedan creed. Their criminal laws are founded on the precepts of the Koran, but by no means so exclusively as are those which the Indian followers of the prophet have adopted.

The Hadj, or pilgrimage to Mecca, is here more common. The Kurban and Zukat, sacrificing and giving religious alms, are more general. They circumcise both males and females. The women come out unveiled in public. The mos-

lems in India are generally Hanifites. The Naningites prefer the doctrines of Imam Shafihi.

They devour locusts. Their rites of burial and marriage differ; they esteem the flesh of a buffalo as the greatest luxury. They hold three days of the week to be lucky for the commencement of any undertaking, viz. Monday, Thursday, and Friday. In short, the Malay resembles more the Arab in the simple mode of his worship, than the Mussulman of Hindoostan, tainted and contaminated by the admixture of many Hindoo observances and ceremonies.

They have no Maulavis or Ulemas like the Mussulmans of India; they observe the five stated daily periods of prayer, as also the postures Ruku, Sijdeh, Itedal, and Kiam.

There are four officiating priests attached to each mosque, besides the Kali or Kazi who presides over a number of mosques, viz. the Imam, the Khatib, the Bilal* or Muezzin, and the Panghúlu Momkim or Mukim. The immediate religious care of the inhabitants of the Mukim (or parish) to which the mosque belongs, devolves upon the Imam, Khatib, and Bilal.

* Bilal was the name of the first Muezzin in the time of the prophet, and is used by the Malays instead of the term Muezzin.

There are two Kazis in Naning, "Selaho and Sulong Juman," (to both of these priests I am indebted for much of the information collected here on the religious usages of the Naningites); the former resides at Campong Tengha, near Mullikey, the latter at Malacca Pinda. The Kazi is guardian to all orphans, who have no near male relations; he is arbitrator of all knotty religious points, which the four inferior may not be able to decide; he confirms marriages. In the month Ramzan, or the Malayan Puasa, the Naningites present their Kazis with the fitrat, in the shape of small donations of rice, generally, one gantang from each individual. The Kazi receives, at the death of any person one "suku," and at sacrifices, the head of the victim.

The functions of the Imam are exercised in the performance of the sacred rites of the Mohammedan religion, viz. those under the heads of the imamet, the mandi, and kafan, or washing and shrouding of the dead, the selat jenazet, or prayer pronounced over the corpse, before interment. His fee is commonly one "suku," and the clothes of the deceased. The Imams of Malacca, however, and of India, do not perform the duties of washing and shrouding the dead; these offices are executed in Malacca by the Bilal, and in India by the Naib of the Kazi.

The Khatib, as in India and Arabia, recites the khatbeh, an oration or sermon, in praise of God, the prophet, and his vicegerents, on Friday, in the mosque, from the three steps of the mimbar, a species of rostrum; and he performs the nikah, or marriage ceremony, for which he receives three peraks, (nearly equivalent to six annas,) four cubits of white cloth, and a tikar, a sort of mat.

The duties of the Bilal are sacrificial; the calling to public prayer,' the reciting of the Talkin, the service for the dead, after the corpse has been lowered into the grave. His fee for the last is a sikar and one perak. When a goat or buffalo is sacrificed, he receives two fingers breadth of flesh from the victim's neck.

The Panghúlu Momkim, or Mukim, is an inferior servant of the mosque, which it is his duty to keep clean, and in good order; to remove the bodies of the dead, to assist at burials, to go round the various campongs, and give notice of the performance of public prayer, and to report absentees to the Imam. He beats the taboh, or great drum of the mosque, at the sound of which all devout Mussulmans assemble for prayer. The Talkin is sometimes read by this functionary. The Imams, Khatibs, Bilals, and Panghúlu Momkims, are elected to their several offices, after an examination into their fitness and capabilities, by

the Kazis and elders; besides the fees already mentioned, they each receive annually, from every individual attending the mosque, a present of one gantang of paddy.

There are sixteen mosques to the Momkims, or Mukims (parishes) in Naning, viz. those of Tabu, Bukit Tutu,* Pago, Tabung, Pulo Sonno, Brissu, Sungie Siput, Londu, Ayer Parbas, Tanjong Rimo, Padang Sabang, Kamuning, Pillowe, Malacca Pinda, Battang Malacca, and Mullikey. Each of these mosques is under the immediate control of an Imam and a Khatib; and under them a Bilal, and Panghúlu Mukim. All the establishments are superintended by the Kazis, or Kalis, of whom, as previously stated, there are two in Naning.

The mosques are repaired at the public expense, and are generally situated apart from any house, on small insular knolls, in the midst of sawahs. They are conical shaped buildings of wood, raised on wooden pillars, with ornaments of the same material, like the wings of birds, at the eight corners of the two roofs, that cover the buildings, much in the manner and shape of the "flies" of a tent. The inner part consists of one spacious room, kept extremely clean, with a wooden mimbar, or pulpit, at one end.

* This mosque has since been removed to Kalama.

The Taboh, or drum, is generally placed in a small building, erected for the purpose, close to the mosque. It is a long hollow cone of wood, over the wide aperture of which is stretched the strong hide of a buffalo. Before the time appointed for meeting at public prayers, it is beat by the Panghúlu Momkim, to give the inhabitants of the surrounding campongs notice.

There are no minarets to the mosques in Naning. The only one that I have seen in the Peninsula is that of the Malayan mosque at Malacca; on the top of this is a gong, which is struck instead of the drum. The graves that are found near the mosques in Naning are generally those of rich or religious men; poor men being commonly buried at a distance.

At the mosques of Bukit Tutu, near Alor Gajah, are the tombs of the late Raja Muda, of Rumbowe, Raja Assil, who was driven from his dominion by Raja Ali, and that of Anja, the predecessor of the ex-Panghúlu of Naning.

A Mukim must consist of forty-four houses; the Khatbeh cannot be read in the mosque until the number be complete.

In every part of the country are found tombs of men famed for piety, in whose names the people of Naning make vows for the prosperous termination of any project, and whose burial-places they

honour with frequent visits and oblations, &c. They call such tombs Kramets. There is no particular day, as in India, on which they congregate to perform the Urs,* or pilgrimage.

The most sacred tombs, or Kramets, in Naning, are those of Kala Katti, Pai Dalum, and Bukit Paion, near Tabu; also those of Khatib Batani, at Londu, of Dattu Dalon, at Sabang, and those at Lubu Koppong and Kalama.

Those mentioned before at Bukit Tutu, of the expelled Raja Muda, of Rumbowe, and Anja, the predecessor of the ex-Panghúlu, of Naning, will, when hallowed by time, "become Kramets," which literally signifies "revered," "venerable," a "miracle;" but is a term given generally by Malays to the burial-places of the early Arabian zealots, who first preached the doctrines of Mohammed on the Malay Peninsula.

The Bidan, or midwife, always attends on the occasions of births; her hire is about a dollar for the forty days, during which it is customary for her to remain. The new arrival being washed, &c. the father puts his mouth to its ear, and pronounces the Azan, or "Allah Akbar." On the seventh day, the ceremony of Bar Chukur, or shaving the head, is performed, together with the

* At Malacca there is an annual Urs to the tomb of Wali Ismail, on Pulo Besar.

Fatiheh, and Maulud, a form of prayer used at births. On the fortieth day, the woman performs the customary ablutions and prayers, and is pronounced clean.

The ceremony of Beraza Gigi, or filing the teeth, takes place among women before the day fixed for the Antar-belanja, i. e. the day on which it is customary for the bridegroom to send the money for the marriage expenses. It is performed by a woman with a species of fine stone, brought generally from Achin; sometimes a fine steel file is substituted: the patient reclines on her back during the operation; it lasts about an hour, and has been described to me as producing a peculiarly harsh and unpleasant sensation, similar to that caused by the action of strong mineral acids. The teeth are generally filed down about one quarter of their height. After the operation, the gums not unfrequently remain in a swollen and painful state for two or three days. The Beraza Gigi is performed on males at uncertain periods, but generally in early age, and is, Mr. Marsden observes, often the occasion of some family festival; as also, is the ceremony of boring the female's ear.

The Malays consider the process of filing down the teeth, together with the subsequent operation of blackening them, indispensable for personal beauty. The latter effect is produced by the re-

peated application of a black liquid, termed grang, obtained by burning cocoa-nut shells on iron plates.

Marriages are not contracted at so early an age as among the Moslems of India, but, as there, the parties chiefly interested have least to do in selecting their future partners for life. The alliance is first agreed on by the friends of both parties, generally the matrons. After this, a few friends of the bridegroom elect wait upon the bride's father, and present him with a ring and a small donation of clothes; the marriage expenses, which are paid by the man's friends, are then agreed on. The Mahr, or marriage portion of the wife, is also paid by the man, and ought to be always a tahil of gold or silver, or some other less precious metal, according to his means.* It is usually fixed at the time of performing the Nikah, which is done by the Khatib, before two witnesses on each part, and a Wakil or agent on part of the bride, who is not present, but remains at home. Thither the Wakil and two witnesses go to ask her consent as a matter of form; the ceremony is then performed agreeably to the Mohammedan law.

The husband can then, if his wife have attained the age of puberty, carry her to his own house;

* It is, however, generally thirty serapie, a sum nearly equivalent to 30 rupees.

if not, she remains in her father's house, until the desired event take place.

When the parties are wealthy, a buffalo is killed, and the friends of both parties feasted. The two inferior kinds of marriage common in Java, and self-prostitution, are rare in Naning, though instances have been known of husbands prostituting their own wives and children when pressed by debt or poverty.

Women about to be married cut off the hair, (this ceremony is called "Andam") in front of the forehead. This is done, as well as the application of the "Inei" or "Henna" to the palms, and nails of the hands and feet, three days before the marriage ceremony.

Of the ceremonials after death the following may be noticed:—

If the dying person retain possession of his faculties, he recites or has recited to him the Touhid, a form of confession of the unity of the Deity. After death, the Imam performs Mandi and Kafan, or the washing and shrouding of the corpse; for this latter purpose, a long wrapper of cotton cloth, the baju, vest, and turban of the deceased, and two liffafehs are used; the grave is invariably dug the depth of a man's height, from ear to foot. The Mussulmans of India make a distinction: for a man, they excavate to the depth

of a man's height from the navel downwards; for a woman, to the depth of a man's height from breast to foot.

The corpse is placed on a bier formed of two planks, the exact length of the grave, to which it is carried, followed by the nearest relatives; females sometimes attend in Naning, but never at Malacca.

The Selat Jenazeh is then read by the Imam, standing; the corpse is lowered down into the grave, with the two planks that formed the bier. It is not deposited on the direct bottom of the grave, but in a side receptacle about two feet high: the two planks are then forced down edgeways, so as to shut out firmly this receptacle from the rest of the cavity, which is then filled up with earth thrown through some green leaves and branches, in order that it may fall more lightly, till the upper edge of the last plank is concealed, when earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up in the usual manner; a little water is then sprinkled, and the Bilal or Panghúlu Momkim recites the Talkin on the grave, in a sitting posture, with his face turned towards the Kibleh, in the direction of which also the head of the corpse is inclined.

On the third, the seventh, the fourteenth, the fortieth, and lastly, on the hundredth day, fatiheh,

oblations of spices, aloe-wood, and flowers, are made to the manes of the dead.

Their burial-places are raised banks of earth, with two small wooden pillars* or upright stones at each end of an oblong carved wooden frame, the largest denotes the head; they plant the sulasih generally near burial grounds, and sometimes the champaka and camboja.

Like other Mohammedans, they believe in the examination of the corpse by the angels "Munkir and Nekir," who enter upon their inquisitorial functions, after the funeral attendants have retired seven paces from the grave, on their return to their several homes.

The religious observance of the first ten days of the months of Mohurrum, the 28th of Safr, the 12th of Rabi-al-awal, the first twelve days of Rabi-al-akhir, the 10th of Shaban, the thirty days' fast of Ramzan, and the first of Shaval; and lastly, the 10th to the 15th of Za-al Haj, resembles the practice of the Arabs more than the customs which obtain among the Mohammedans of India.

The sacrifice of the buffalo is, I believe, peculiar to Malayan Mohammedans. The buffalo selected for the Kurban must be without blemish

* Those for females are generally flat and niched at the summit; they are called Nissan, probably from the Persian Nishan.

or disease; its fore and hind leg bones must not be broken after death, nor the spine: neither are the horns to be used for common purposes, such as the handles of krises, &c.

The animal to be sacrificed is thrown down in a convenient place near the mosque of the Mukim, by his hind and fore legs being bound together; his head is also secured and turned in the direction of the Kibleh, and water then poured over it; the Bilal advances with the sacrificial knife, (in Naning the knife called Gulo Rumbowe is generally used for this purpose,) and turning himself towards the Kibleh, recites the "Bismillahi helalan taieeban Allahu Akbar," four times successively, and then divides the wind-pipe and large blood-vessel of the neck of the animal. It is flayed after death, and cut up into two equal parts. One-half is distributed among the inhabitants of the Mukim; of the other half, two chuppahs (a little more than 2lbs.) are allotted to the Panghúlu, the head to the Kali, two chuppahs to the Imam, two to the Khatib, two to the Bilal and Panghúlu Momkim or Mukim. The first half is generally cooked and eaten on the spot.

On religious occasions, buffaloes are always sacrificed on one of these three days, Friday, Monday, or Thursday. They are also sacrificed at weddings, births, circumcisions, &c., of wealthy

people at the "Chukur Anak," or the ceremony of shaving the heads of children; and finally when going to war. On these occasions, the buffalo need not be without blemish, &c., and is killed according to the usual Mohammedan custom of the Zabbah.

In Arabia the camel is esteemed the most acceptable sacrifice that can be offered; not only from the high repute in which the flesh of this animal is held among the inhabitants, but also on account of its general usefulness. The Malays, in like manner, having no camels, select the buffalo, the flesh of which is considered the greatest delicacy imaginable; every person who has travelled over the Sawahs of a Malayan country, can bear witness to the utility of the despicable-looking buffalo.

The Naningites carry on a trade with Malacca, chiefly in timber for house-building, ratans, jaggery, and fruit. Its natural productions and zoology do not differ essentially from those of the Peninsula. (See Chap. VII.) Although it is certain that the chief present object is to improve and extend the agriculture of Naning, still its mineral resources should not be neglected.

At Bukit Bertam, gold was formerly procured, and considerable quantities of tin are known to exist throughout the district, particularly at Bukit

Kukusan, Sungie Bulu, Ulu Pondoi, and Lundi, near Tabu. At the latter place, Mr. Westerhout has opened a mine, of the first produce of which I possess a very favourable specimen. There is, in fact, but little doubt that the mines in the vicinity of Malacca, if scientifically worked by persons of some little capital and perseverance, would prove of much intrinsic value; and might otherwise benefit the country, by drawing into it an enterprising and industrious population.

The want of capital, and consequent haste to convert the produce into cash, is the great drawback, not only to mining speculations, but to the cultivation of pepper, and of other spices, requiring still more time before they yield any return to the cultivator.

The revenue is derived from a tenth on the land produce. It was estimated in the Panghúlu's time at 3000 Spanish dollars per annum. He used to levy five gantangs of paddy, two fowls, and two cocoa-nuts, from each house, besides other privileges. After the Government took the revenue, the disbursements at first exceeded the income; but the country has since so rapidly improved, that it now yields a considerable surplus, which is here shown.

STATEMENT OF REVENUE.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus.
1833-4	drs. 761 74	drs. 463 32	drs 298 42
1834-5	1,138 34	519 95	618 39
1835-6	1,240 10	490 76	749 34

The tenth* on the rice-crops is levied in Naning much as it is in the ceded lands, just mentioned, near Malacca.

When the grain is ripe, a person on the part of Government visits the rice-fields, attended by the owner, the Panghúlu, or Mata Matas of the village, and several of the oldest inhabitants, on the spot, in order to agree upon and assess the value of the crop. A difference of opinion will naturally sometimes arise between the taxer and the taxed. This is submitted to the arbitration of the Panghúlu and the village elders. But should these persons again assess the crop at a lower value than the collector's agent really thinks it worth, the latter has still the resource of offering to purchase the whole of the crop on the part

* The sovereign's right to the tenth has been from time immemorial acknowledged in Malayan states. This custom is very ancient, and appears to have prevailed over a great portion of the known world, and among nations of a very different character and religion; for instance, the Jews, the Gauls, the Chaldeans, the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans. It was originally offered to the gods, and their priests, and then to sovereigns, who not unfrequently united the sacerdotal functions with their temporal powers.

of Government, at a price according to the owner's valuation. This proposal, whenever made, has been, I believe, invariably refused. It is not therefore improbable, all circumstances considered, that not more than seven or eight per cent. at the most ever finds its way into the Company's godowns. The tenth in kind on paddy is sold, whenever a good price can be procured for it, on the spot, and the proceeds lodged in the treasury. The tenth on the other articles of land produce is levied at tolls placed at the entrances into Naning from Malacca, and there immediately sold.

Much inconvenience and loss are experienced by Government, through this uncertain mode of collecting the revenue. The tax itself, too, as it rises with the produce, operates practically as a check to progressive increase in the cultivation.

A pecuniary compensation,* or commutation, of the duty on the sawahs, or wet lands, fixed for a definite period, not less than five years, would be far more advantageous and convenient to both parties. It should be very moderate for the first period, during which the amount of the crops for each successive season should be carefully ascertained, as well as the increased quantity of land that would naturally be brought under cultivation.

* Since allowed, I believe, by the Supreme Government.

To such an arrangement the Naning cultivators are by no means averse, but they object to it with regard to the ladang, or dry land crops.

The desultory mode of cultivation known under the term Ladang, of which Mr. Marsden has given an excellent description in his History of Sumatra, chap. iv., forms one of the principal obstacles to the introduction of the new land regulations into a Malayan country. Added to this, is the notorious dislike the Malays entertain to innovation and change, and their innate love of liberty, and freedom from all shackles. They have a strong aversion to be bound down even to the performance of any thing, which they would have much amusement and pleasure in doing were they acting solely under the influence of their own free will and choice.

I am not aware that the ladang mode of cultivation offers any other advantage to the Malays than that it is compatible with the enjoyment of a wandering life.

The ladang rice, however, is affirmed by some to be sweeter and whiter, and to keep better than the produce of the sawah. The principal grain districts are those of Sabang and Mullikey.

The rice-crops of 1833-4 were not so abundant as expected, owing to a bad season, and the employment of the newly-returned inhabitants

in re-building their houses, repairing the Ampangans, or dams thrown across the rivers, for purposes of irrigation. The total produce of paddy amounted to 137,985 gantangs.

The following is a statement of the planters and crop of 1835–6:—

	No. of Planters.	Gantangs of Paddy.
Pay tenth.....	1,378	254,166
Exempt	76	30,210
	1,454	284,376

Those "exempt" from paying the tenth are the Priests, the Panghúlus, and their Mata Matas. The two last enjoy this privilege for assisting in the preservation of good order, and in the collection of revenue from their respective districts; no other remuneration is allowed them from Government.

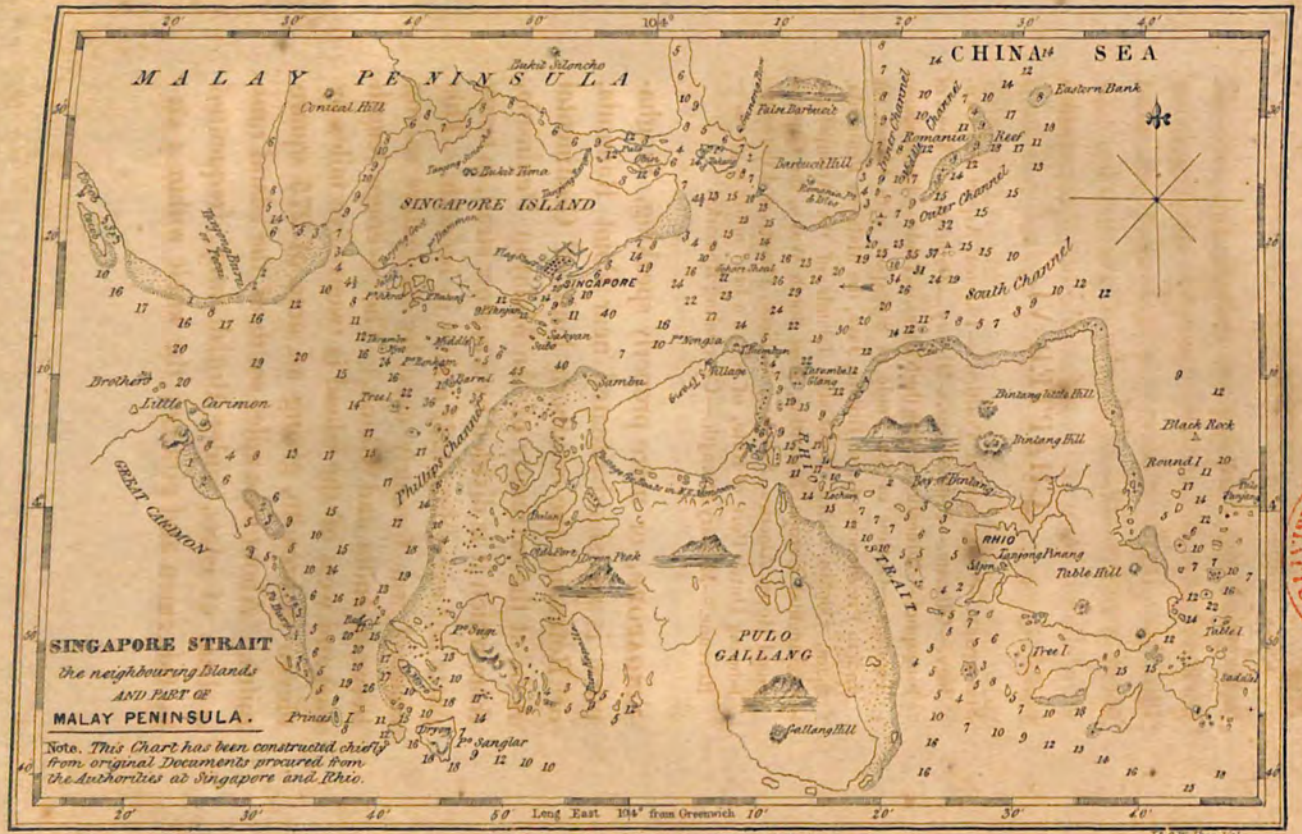
In conclusion, Colonel Farquhar might perhaps have been a little too enthusiastic when he affirmed that "nature has been profusely bountiful to the Malay peninsula, in bestowing on it a climate the most agreeable and salubrious, a soil luxuriantly fertilized by numerous rivers, and the face of the country diversified with hills and valleys, mountains and plains, forming the most beautiful and interesting scenery that it is possible

for the imagination to figure." &c. &c. But nothing could be more just and better founded than the following observation of the gallant Colonel: "We have only to lament that a more enterprising and industrious race of inhabitants than the Malays should not have possessed this delightful region."

CHAPTER VI.

SINGAPORE.—Geographical Position.—Physical Aspect and Geology.—Climate.—Productions.—History.—Population.—Town of Singapore.—Education among the Natives.—Trade.—Exchange.—Tonnage.—Outline of the Trade of Singapore with China, the Indian Presidencies, Great Britain, Java, the Malayan Peninsula, Siam, Cochin China, Cambodia, Islands of the Archipelago, Continental Europe, Mauritius, New South Wales, the Cape of Good Hope, America, Sumatra, Malacca, Pinang, and the neighbouring Dutch Port of Rhio, of which a brief notice is given.—Revenue.—Military Strength.—Concluding Remarks.

SINGAPORE, or more properly speaking, Singhapúra, is an island situated near Point Ramunia, or Romania, the southern limit of Continental Asia, at the extremity of the Malayan Peninsula, from which it is divided by a narrow strait, in many parts not exceeding half a mile in breadth. This channel was formerly used by navigators sailing between India and China. The average length east and west of the island is twenty-five miles by eleven in breadth, giving an area of 275 square miles. About nine miles south of the island runs a chain of islets, under British sway, frequented by fishermen and pirates; the whole within a cir-


MALAY PENINSULA
CHINA SEA
SINGAPORE ISLAND
SINGAPORE
Bukit Silencho
Conical Hill
Bukit Timo
Tanjong Burn or Yeou
False Barbucit
Barbucit Hill
Inner Channel
Middle Channel
Romania Reef
Eastern Bank
Outer Channel
South Channel
Sakyan Sudo
Sambu
Brothers
Little Carimon
GREAT CARIMON
Phillips Channel
Bintang little Hill
Bintang Hill
Black Rock
Round I.
Bay of Bintang
RHIO
Tanjong Pinang
Table Hill
Table I.
Tree I.
Sadd's
Dryon Peak
Pulo Sugi
Pulo Sanglar
Princes I.
Dryon
PULO GALLANG
Gallang Hill
RHIO STRAIT
Long East 104° from Greenwich
SINGAPORE STRAIT
the neighbouring Islands
AND PART OF
MALAY PENINSULA.
Note. This Chart has been constructed chiefly from original Documents procured from the Authorities at Singapore and Rhio.
Published by John Murray, Albemarle St. 1839.
J. & C. Walker lithog.

cumference of about 100 miles. The channel flowing between them and the island just described, forms the present strait of Singapore; the great thoroughfare of Indian, European, and Chinese traffic. A narrow passage called New Harbour, has lately been discovered to the west of Singapore, through which vessels can pass and avoid the circuitous route by St. John's.

Singapore, and most of the islets in the vicinity, are covered with luxuriant jungle to the water's edge, presenting to the eye of the voyager a scene that has repeatedly excited the most rapturous admiration. The surface of the island of Singapore is low and undulating; in some parts rising into rounded hills covered with jungle; the intervening flats, and some low tracts near the coast are swampy. The soil of the flats is generally blackish, from the great proportion of the decayed vegetable matter it contains; while that on the hills is red, of various shades. The substratum appears to be still more sandy, containing numerous bits of quartz, the detritus of the subjacent rocks. It is found both of a sandy and clayey consistence. The hills near Singapore consist chiefly of laterite, resting on sandstone. Fragments of granite and bouldered trap are scattered along the beach; but from the circumstance that no masses of the latter have yet been found *in*

situ, it would be presumptuous to say that it belonged to the structure of the island, though it possibly exists in dykes of the granite. It is generally smooth and waterworn; and being in great request for pavements round the houses, the best specimens have consequently disappeared from the beach. It is of the compact kind. Some, however, is vesicular, approaching to the nature of scoriæ; and one specimen sent to me exhibited sandstone and trap alternately. Sandstone occurs red, white, yellow, and variegated. None that has hitherto fallen under my observation contained a vestige of fossil remains. Conglomerates of grains of quartz held together by a ferruginous cement, and a whitish sectile clay-slate are found. Several varieties of laterite are met with, but the prevailing form of it is an ochreous fissile clay, more or less vesicular and indurated. Singapore, it has been urged, as well as the whole contiguous group of islands, is of recent submarine origin. On examining the map, we certainly find it to be at no considerable distance from the great volcanic belt that extends from the north of the Andamans, though Sumatra, Java, the Moluccas, Philippine, the Japanese, and Kurile islands, and Kamschatka to the Allutian islands. Among other geological specimens with which I have been favoured by a scientific cor-

respondent, was one from Singapore, of sand, shattered and penetrated by the laterite, which he supposes to be of volcanic origin, and forced up in a fluid state through the previously existing sandstone which it now surmounts.

The question regarding the origin of laterite is still undecided, and remains a desideratum in Indian geology. The variation of the compass at Singapore is 2° 9′ E.

The climate resembles that of Malacca; though, from the circumstance of its not having such regular alternations of the land and sea breezes, it is said to be much hotter, and not so healthy.* The thermometer, Fahrenheit, ranges from 71° to 89°. Singapore being nearer the equator than Pinang and Malacca, the influence of the monsoons is even less felt there than at either of those settlements. The island is kept in a state of perpetual verdure, by frequent tropical showers.

There appears to be little doubt that the alluvial soil of Singapore, lying as it does on the face of a country in most parts well supplied with the requisite temperature and moisture, provided it be of sufficient depth, is fully capable of producing, with profit to the cultivator, nutmegs, pepper, sugar, cotton, coffee, and gambier. Cloves have

* For tables of Thermometrical and Barometrical range during six years at Singapore, see Appendix, No. 11.

been attempted, but the trees have generally died away at the age of five or six years. Nutmegs have succeeded as well as coffee and pepper. The latest accounts state, that so confident are the Chinese of success in this article (coffee), that they are every where extending their plantations, and there are now several with 2000 to 3000 young plants coming up. The produce of the Chinese pepper gardens, for 1836, is estimated at 10,000 piculs. Speculations in the cultivation of cotton have been entered into by several European public-spirited individuals with every prospect of success. For rice, the staff of life in the East, Singapore is dependent on Java, Bengal, and Sumatra: for fruits, pigs, poultry, and cattle, in great measure, on Malacca. The present land regulations, by which the acquisition of waste and vacant lands on the island either by purchase or on long lease, is prevented, are great obstructions to cultivation, clearing, &c. and to the prosperity of the settlement. The subject has been made matter of petition to Government, by the Agricultural and Horticultural Societies lately established at Singapore, and I heartily wish them every success in their laudable efforts to elicit fully the natural resources of this thriving little island. Always let it be borne in mind, that for the successful growth of spices, three things are essential.

First, a capital sufficient to bear the heavy expenses of the first seven years, then permanent local residence; and thirdly, a long lease of the soil. A judicious system of cultivation thus supported and commenced, under a more liberal code of land regulations, at an early period, would have gone far to realize the prophecy of the late Mr. Canning, who stated to the House of Commons, in 1824, that Singapore, after six years, would produce spices sufficient for the consumption of Great Britain and her colonies. The example of men of capital would go a great way in exciting a spirit of emulation among the less wealthy branches of the community, to whom grants of waste land might be assigned, and even pecuniary advances made by Government; the repayment of which latter might be guaranteed from the produce of the soil, delivered at a fixed rate. The last land regulations* are to the following effect:—The cultivator clears the land; this done, he is allowed a lease for fifteen years, paying one Spanish dollar per acre annually. At the expiration of this term, the rate is increased to three dollars per acre, and a new lease for another term of fifteen years taken. Thirty years having expired, the lease is to be exchanged for another of fifteen years, at six dol-

* These land regulations are now (1837) I understand, being subjected to revision.

lars per acre; and after this for another, not exceeding ten dollars. It is needless to add, that few leases have been applied for on such terms; particularly as the price of labour is so high. A Chinese seldom gets less than nine sicca rupees a month—a Chuliah and Malay a little less.

The coral reefs and shoals, in the vicinity of Singapore, furnish that delicate fern-like sea-weed called by Malays, *aggar-aggar* (the Fucus Saccharinus) in abundance. It forms an article of considerable export to China. The Chinese use it in thin glues and varnishes. It is made into a very fine jelly by Europeans and Native Portuguese. The average produce annually is 6,000 piculs, at three dollars a picul.

The island of Singapore is celebrated in Malayan history as having been the first place of settlement of the early Malay colonists from Sumatra, the origin of the empire of Malacca, to the eastward, and as having been connected with several interesting eras in the history of the last. The former event took place towards the middle of the twelfth century, when, we are informed by the author of the *Sejára Maláyu* that, Sang Nila Utama, supposed by Mohammedan historians to have been a descendant of Alexander the Great, settled on the island, with a colony of Malays originally from Sumatra, and founded the city of

Singhapúra A. D. 1160. The lines of this city and of its defences were, according to Sir S. Raffles,* still to be traced in 1819. In A. D. 1252, the *Bitára* of Majapahit, in Java, invaded *Singhapúra*, destroyed the city, and dispersed its inhabitants over various parts of the Malayan peninsula. The majority fled with their monarch, Sri Iscander Shah, to Muar (a river south of Malacca,) and from thence to Malacca; where they settled and founded a city. The name of the island of Singapore, originally *Tamasak*, was now, A. D. 1160, changed to that of *Singhapúra*, the city of the Lion, from the tradition of Sang Nila Utama's having seen a *Singha*, or lion, near the mouth of the river. This Singha is described in the *Sejára Maláyu* as an animal very swift and beautiful, its body red, head black, and its breast white; very active, and in size larger than a he-goat. To Sang Nila Utama, the title of Sri Tri-buana was given by the Bat'h, or bard, who celebrated his adventures. Tri-buana died A. D. 1208, after a reign of forty-eight years, leaving two sons, Raja Kechil Besar, and Raja Kechil Muda, and was buried on the hill of *Singhapúra*. Raja Kechil Besar succeeded under the title of *Paduca Sri Vicrama Vira*.

* Memoirs, p. 376.

Before his father's death, this prince had married the Princess *Nila Panchadi*, daughter of *Jambuga Rama Mudelliar*, Raja of Bijanugger, in the land of Kelinga (Telinga?) who had been sent by her father with ambassadors and a numerous fleet to *Singhapúra*. By the princess he had a son, named Raja Muda. The Malay annals state that, during Vicrama's reign, the kingdom of *Singhapúra* increased in power, and became famous over the whole world: and we are told by De Barros, in the Sixth Book of his second Decade, that previously to the founding of Malacca, the city of *Singhapúra* was resorted to by the navigators of the western seas of India, as well as by those sailing to countries lying to the eastward of it, such as Siam, China, Chiampa, Camboja, and the many thousand islands scattered over the Eastern ocean.

The only recorded events of any importance that took place during the reign of this prince were, the arrival of an ambassador from the Bitára of Majapahit, a powerful kingdom of Java, and a subsequent invasion of *Singhapúra* by the Javanese. If we may believe the Malay annalist, the history of this war between Java and *Singhapúra* is too tedious to relate. The invaders were, however, ultimately repelled with loss, forced to hasten on board their prows, and re-

turned, without either glory or advantage, to *Majapahit.* Vicrama Vira died about A. D. 1223, succeeded by his son, Raja Muda, under the title of *Sri Rama Vicrama,* who died about A. D. 1236, succeeded in turn by his son *Dasyá Raja,* under the title of *Paduca Sri Maharaja.* The death of *Sri Maharaja* took place about 1249, when his son, *Raja Secunder Shah,* ascended the throne. This monarch, it appears, having suspected one of his mistresses of infidelity, had her impaled at *Ujong Pasar.* The *Bandahára,* or chief minister of state, whose daughter she was, deeply affected by the disgrace and shame entailed on his blood by the cruel and public manner of his daughter's death, sent a message to Java, inviting the Bitára of Majapahit to come over and possess himself of *Singhapúra.* The Bitára immediately fitted out an expedition, consisting of three hundred junks, a vast flotilla of smaller vessels, on which he embarked 200,000 Javanese, and set sail for *Singhapúra.* Here the gates of the fortress were opened by the injured *Bandahára* to the Javanese troops, and a scene of indiscriminate carnage, (or "amok") took place. The city was destroyed, the remnant of the inhabitants sought safety in flight, and dispersed themselves over various parts of the Malayan peninsula. The majority fled with their monarch,

Sri Iscander Shah, to Muar, (a river south of Malacca,) and from thence to Malacca; where, as I have mentioned in the history of that settlement, they remained and founded a city. The taking of *Singhapúra* is supposed to have happened in A. D. 1252. The Malay annalist winds up his narrative by thus holding up the fate of the *Bandahára* as a warning for all traitors to their country. "By the power of God Almighty, the house of *Sang Ranjuna Tapa* (the name of the *Bandahára*,) faded, and its pillars were overturned, and rice ceased to be planted in the land, and Sang Ranjuna Tapa, together with his wife, were changed into stones; and these are the stones which appear beside the moat of *Singhapúra*."

The Javanese did not make any permanent settlement on the island; contented with the plunder and destruction of the city, they went back once more, to Majapahit. *Singhapúra* probably reverted to the possession of the Malay sovereigns of Malacca, though, until lately, it never again rose into importance. Mansur Shah of Malacca, who reigned towards the close of the fourteenth century, we find in the *Sejára Maláyu*,* had a hundred vessels, *lancharans*, with three masts,

* Page 160.

fitted out at *Singhapúra* as part of an armament against Majapahit; and subsequently, in the reign of Sultan Mahmud, we find that a chief, named *Dattu Tabenks*, was appointed to succeed in the government of *Singhapúra*, *Sri Biji di Raja*, who was put to death by order of the sultan, for having failed to present himself at Malacca on the occasion of some solemn festival. In 1511, when the Portuguese took Malacca, *Singhapúra* remained in possession of the Malay sovereign, thenceforward resident in Johore, and it continued in the hands of his descendants down to 1819, when it was ceded in February to the British Commissioners, Sir S. Raffles, with Colonel Farquhar, and Captain Ross, who was at Singapore when Sir Stamford reached it. The population of the island, at this time, amounted to about 150 individuals, dwelling in a few miserable huts, under the rule of an officer of the Sultan of Johore, entitled the Tumungong of Singapore, and predecessor of the present Tumungong. During the interregnum, subsequent to the demise of Mahomed Shah of Johore, father of the late sultan, and the confusion that reigned in consequence of the Bugis taking Rhio, the two great officers of Johore, the Bandahára of Pahang, and the Tumungong, became virtually independent. The latter fixed himself at the island of Singapore in

1815 or 16, and subsisted by fishing and piracy. In this state he was found by the commissioners in 1819. He died in December 1825, at Singapore, succeeded by the present Tumungong. The acquisition of Singapore was not officially authorized until July 1820, when a letter from the late Mr. C. Grant to Sir S. Raffles, informed him of its having been accredited at the India House. (Memoirs, p. 445). The political reasons that gave rise to the occupation of Singapore by the British, and the terms on which it is held from its Malay sovereign, the Sultan of Johore, have been already detailed.

Singapore was immediately placed in charge of Colonel Farquhar, under the general direction of Sir Stamford Raffles, then Lieutenant Governor of Bencoolen. The Supreme Government in making at this time arrangements for the permanent establishment of Singapore as a British settlement, and for the proceedings of a resident there, determined that the administration of its affairs should be distinct from that of Pinang, on account of the great difference existing between the previous governments and commercial policy of the two islands; apprehending also, that the interests of their new possession might be injured by any extensive changes, too hastily adopted in these important matters.

Mr. Crawfurd, the talented author of a work entitled the "Indian Archipelago," took charge of the settlement from Sir Stamford Raffles, in 1823, with two assistants, Messrs. Bonham and Presgrove, civilians of the Bencoolen establishment, and was appointed Resident immediately, under the Supreme Government. Mr. Prince succeeded Mr. Crawfurd on the 14th August, 1826. On the cession of Bencoolen to the Dutch, in exchange for Malacca, in 1826, Singapore ceased to be a dependency of the former, and was united to the Pinang government. Mr. Murchison became Resident on the 29th November, 1827. Mr. Bonham relieved him, and Mr. Church took his place in January 1837, when Mr. Bonham followed Mr. Murchison in the general government of the Straits Settlements.

The population of the island, when the British flag was hoisted in 1819, amounted to about 150 fishermen and pirates, living in a few miserable huts; about thirty of these were Chinese, the remainder Malays. It rapidly increased in less than one year to nearly 5000, principally Chinese; and in November, 1822, we are informed* by Sir S. Raffles, that, the population of the town of Singapore amounted to at least 10,000 inhabi-

* Memoirs, page 525.

tants of all nations, actually engaged in profitable commercial pursuits, and land rapidly increasing in value. In 1836–7, its population amounted to 29,984. The population of the neighbouring small islands, within the jurisdiction of Singapore, was not taken till the year 1834, and amounted to

Chinese.....	21
Malays	928
Bugis	99
Javanese	6
Total	1,054

The junks from China bring annually a large number of Chinese settlers.* The censuses include neither the military, their followers, nor the convicts, the number of whom may be estimated at about 1200. The Europeans and Chinese constitute the wealthier classes. The Europeans are for the most part, merchants, shopkeepers, and agents for mercantile houses in Europe. Most of the artisans, labourers, agriculturists, and shopkeepers, are Chinese. The Malays subsist chiefly by fishing, collecting sea-weed, and cutting timber; numbers are employed as boatmen and sailors; a mode of life particularly congenial to Malay habits. The Bugis are almost invariably

engaged in commerce, and the natives of India, as petty shopkeepers, boatmen, servants, &c.

The number of males compared with that of females in the population returns of Singapore, is remarkable, particularly among classes where polygamy is allowed. The census for 1836, gives a total of 29,984; out of which only 7,729 are females. This disproportion, whether arising from the strict prohibition of the emigration of females by the laws of China, or from the fluctuating nature of the population, or from the obstacles presented to a permanent settlement of natives by the present land regulations, is a serious impediment to the prosperity of the island, and should be, if possible, immediately removed.

Shortly after the first establishment of Singapore, the system of slavery and of slave-debtors, as at Malacca, prevailed to some extent. The former was abolished in 1823, by Sir Stamford Raffles carrying into effect the provisions of the Act of Parliament for that purpose; and the latter considerably modified. The claim of the creditor was in no case to be considered to exceed the services of the debtor for a period of five years, the debt being considered as worked out at the rate of twenty per cent, or not less than ten dollars per annum. At Pinang, the period of the debtor's service is fixed by the magistrate propor-

tionably to the amount of the debt. A debtor can only give his individual services, and not those of his whole family as before, agreeably to Malayan usage, for the clearing of his debts. At both places, and also at Malacca, I believe, the service agreement between the creditor and debtor must be signed in the presence of a magistrate, otherwise it is not valid. Many of the Chinese emigrants to the Straits settlements, who have not the means of paying the passage from their native country, let out their services for certain periods to individuals paying the money on their arrival at the settlement to the captains of the junks who take them on board with this understanding. The passage money ought not to exceed eight or twelve dollars, and can be worked out in two or three months.

The following table will show the rapid progress since 1822, the result of the policy by which the port of Singapore was opened. The first regular census was taken in 1824, when the population amounted to 10,683.

CENSUSES OF SINGAPORE FROM 1824 TO 1836.

	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1832	1833	1834	1836
Europeans	74	84	111	87	108	122	92	105	119	138	141
Indo-Britons	..	..	..	..	..	..	29	94	96	113	117
Native Christians	74	132	206	188	193	272	345	420	300	326	425
Armenians	16	9	18	19	25	24	23	26	35	44	34
Jews	..	..	..	..	..	..	9	5	2	6	4
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	32	28	64	96	66	41
Malays	4,580	5,130	5,697	4,790	5,336	5,750	5,173	7,215	7,131	9,452	9,632
Chinese	3,317	3,828	4,279	6,088	6,210	7,575	6,555	7,762	8,517	10,767	13,749
Natives of Coromandel, and Malabar Coasts	390	690	605	777	1,095	1,440	1,491	1,414	1,819	1,728	2,348
Ditto of Hindoostan and Bengal	366	226	384	244	294	455	422	529	505	594	582
Javanese	..	38	146	267	355	634	607	644	595	669	903
Bugis, Balinese, &c.	1,851	1,704	1,442	1,242	1,252	1,360	1,860	1,427	1,726	2,364	1,952
Caffres	..	..	2	5	..	..	..	8	37	62	41
Parsees	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	.	2
Siamese	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Total	10,683	11,851	12,907	13,725	14,885	17,664	16,634	19,715	20,978	26,329	29,984

CENSUSES FOR THE YEARS 1830, 1832, 1833, AND 1834.

	1830.		1832.		1833.		1834.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Europeans	73	19	83	22	91	28	100	38
Indo-Britons	21	8	67	27	56	40	55	58
Native Christians	228	117	274	146	167	133	186	140
Armenians	16	7	20	6	27	8	32	12
Jews	9	..	5	..	2	..	6	..
Arabs	28	..	61	3	96	..	55	11
Malays	2,643	2,530	3,748	3,467	3,763	3,368	5,173	4,279
Chinese	6,021	534	7,149	613	7,650	867	9,944	823
Natives of the Coromandel Coast	1,437	54	1,374	40	1,762	57	1,659	69
Ditto of Hindoostan	308	114	408	121	389	116	439	155
Javanese	381	226	391	253	361	234	400	269
Bugis, Balinese, &c.	1,048	812	735	692	794	932	1,346	1,018
Caffres	..	..	7	1	23	14	37	25
Parsees	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..
	12,213	4,421	14,324	5,391	15,181	5,797	19,432	6,897
Females	4,421	..	5,391	..	5,797	..	6,897	..
Total Inhabitants	16,634	..	19,715	..	20,978	..	26,329	..

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE CENSUSES OF 1834 AND 1836.

(Census not taken in 1835.)

	1834.		1836.		INCREASE.		DECREASE.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Europeans	100	38	105	36	5	..	..	2
Indo-Britons	55	58	65	52	10	..	..	6
Native Christians	186	140	224	201	38	61	..	..
Armenians	32	12	26	8	..	..	6	4
Jews	6	..	4	..	..	..	2	..
Arabs	55	11	33	8	..	..	22	3
Malays	5,173	4,279	5,122	4,510	..	231	51	..
Chinese	9,944	823	12,870	879	2,926	56	..	..
Natives of the Coast of Coromandel	1,659	69	2,246	102	587	33	..	..
Ditto of Hindoostan	439	155	427	155	..	..	12	..
Javanese	400	269	580	323	180	54	..	..
Bugis and Balinese	1,346	1,018	1,032	930	..	..	314	88
Caffres	37	25	17	24	..	..	20	1
Siamese	..	..	2	1	2	1	..	..
Parsees	..	..	2	..	2	..	..	..
	19,432	6,897	22,755	7,229	3,750	436	427	104
					427	104		
Total Increase.. .					3,323	332		

The following extract from the Singapore Free Press will give an idea of the distribution of the population of Singapore for 1835-36. "In the *town* the total number of inhabitants is 16,148, of whom the males are 12,748, and the females 3,400; the division called by this name extends to the Rocho river on the eastward, and on the westward to Mr. Ryan's hill, and within these boundaries not going farther inward than a line drawn parallel to Mount Sophia. In the population which these limits include we find the Chinese by far the most numerous, amounting to 8,233—the Malays next, amounting to 3,617, and then the Klings 2,157, who with the exception of about 200, form the whole Kling population of the settlement; Javanese, Bengalese, Bugis, and native Christians contribute principally to make up the remainder.

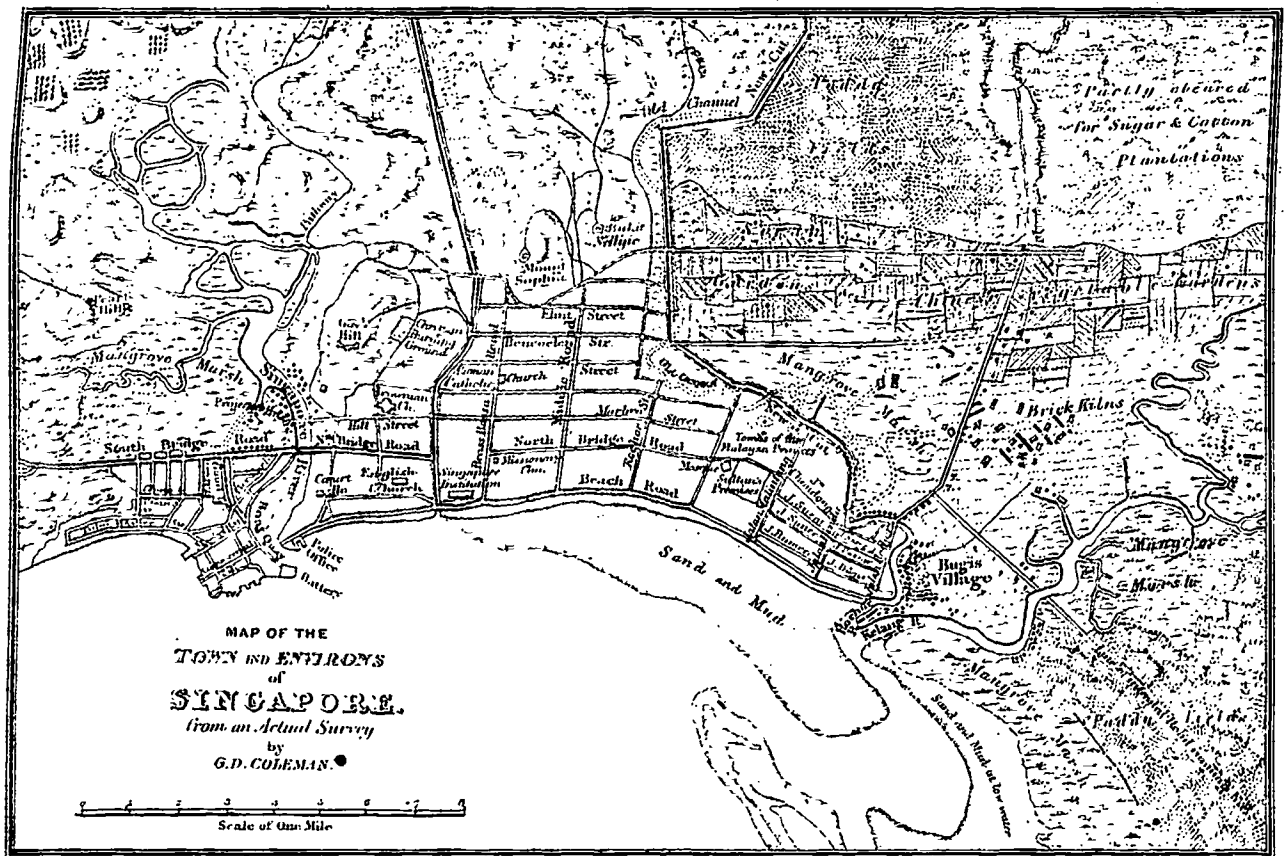
"The *Country* comprises the whole island beyond the limits of the *Town*, and also includes several small circumjacent islands which are dependencies of the settlement. It is, however, subdivided into two districts, namely, the district of Singapore Town, and the district of Kampong Glam. The former may be said to comprehend the western half, the latter the eastern half of the island, beyond the town. The population of the western side amounts altogether to 4,184:—2,338

Chinese, of whom forty-one only are females, and 1,755 Malays, of whom 759 are females; the small remainder being, with a trifling exception, made up of Klings and Bugis. The islands, of which the population is here included, are Blakan Mati, with Salate Chingke; Flag Island, St. John's, Pulo Penang, and Pulo Dammer. The eastern side is much more numerously peopled. Including the islands of Tekong and Ubin, the total number of inhabitants is 9,652. Of these, 4,288 are Malays, of whom 2,050 are females; 3,178 Chinese, of whom seventy-two only are females: 1,515 Bugis, of whom 672 are females; the remainder consists of Javanese, Balinese, and a few Bengalees and Klings. The two small islands, Tekong and Ubin, make up together a population of 1,901; the Chinese females here mentioned are not of course natives of China, but all of a creole or mixed race, and mostly from the neighbouring island of Bintang. Not the least striking feature of this statement is the great relative disproportion of the sexes, and although the total population of the town is considerably greater than that of the country, the number of females is greater in the latter, there being 3,400 for the town, and 3,829 for the country; but the relative proportion in favour of the country is of course much greater

than the mere contrast of these numbers exhibits."

The town of Singapore is situated on the southern side of the island, in Lat. 1° 17′ 22″ North, and in Long. 103° 51′ 45″ East. It is built on both sides of the embouchure of a small river that empties itself into the sea at the western head of a deep bay, and which is navigable for small craft. The town lies on the right bank; the government and court-house, gaol and merchants' houses on the left. On the east side of the town is a deep inlet for the shelter of the native craft. The private houses are more elegant, and on a better plan than those at Pinang. The harbour is spacious and affords safe anchorage at all seasons. The principal public buildings at Singapore, are a court house, government-house on the summit of the hill, gaol, custom-house, mission-chapel, and the Singapore Institution. Singapore has no church, although a chaplain is regularly appointed and paid.

The Institution was projected by Sir S. Raffles in 1823 for the cultivation of the languages of China, Siam, and islands of the Malayan Archipelago, and for the improvement of the moral and intellectual condition of their inhabitants. A plan for removing the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca and uniting it with that of Singapore



London Published by John Murray, Albemarle Street, 1839.

J.&C. Walker, Lith.

had also been agreed on in concert with Dr. Morrison. Patrons, a president, vice-president, trustees, treasurers, a secretary, a librarian, professors of natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, the Chinese, Siamese and Malay languages; a schoolmaster and a printer were appointed. The institution afforded the threefold advantage of a Malay College, and of an Anglo-Chinese College: subscriptions were collected to the amount of 17,495 Spanish dollars, and an edifice commenced under the superintendence of Lieutenant Jackson, on which 15,000 dollars were expended. From causes too long for detail, the scheme fell through, and the unfinished building has been fast going to ruin, though lately, I understand, it has undergone some repair. The Company liberally bestowed a donation of 4,000 Spanish dollars, and a monthly allowance of 300 Spanish dollars upon the Chinese and Malayan schools.

The Singapore Institution, as it exists at present, consists of three schools, English, Malay, and Tamul. It receives the support of government to the amount of 200 rupees per mensem, but is principally supported by subscriptions. The number of scholars amounts to upwards of seventy. A Chinese school on a large scale is contemplated when the building is ready for its reception. A number of Chinese youths are to

be admitted as students to reside at the institution, and to receive instruction in both English and Chinese for a term of four or five years. There are several Native schools at Singapore. The system of education differs not essentially from that at Malacca and Pinang, and is subject to similar remarks.

The first port of modern times, in which the principles of free-trade have been carried into practice, is Singapore. In little more than a twelvemonth after the adoption of them, its harbour presented a pleasing promise of future prosperity; besides ships, brigs, prows, &c. we are informed by Colonel Farquhar, the then resident, that upwards of twenty junks, three from China, two from Cochin-China, and the rest from Siam and other quarters, were lying at anchor. Merchants of all descriptions were congregating so fast, that nothing was heard of in the shape of complaint, but the want of more ground to build upon. According to Sir Stamford Raffles, its exports and imports, by Native boats alone, exceeded four millions of dollars in the year, and during the first two years and a half, no less than 2,889 vessels entered and cleared from the port, of which 383 were owned and commanded by Europeans, and 2,506 by Natives, their united tonnage amounting to 161,000 tons, giving a total

amount of about eight millions of dollars as the capital turned. In the year 1822, the tonnage amounted to 130,689 tons, and total value of exports and imports to upwards of eight millions of dollars. In 1824 to more than thirteen millions; and in 1835–6 to upwards of fourteen millions. A reference to the following tables for 1835–6, extracted from the Singapore "Free Press," will shew, at one view, the extent and variety of the commerce of Singapore, exhibiting both the quantity and value of the imports, as well as the names of the places whence imported. The abbreviations pls. ctys. bnkls. chs. stand for piculs, cattys, bunkals, and chests.

COMMERCIAL TABLES.

IMPORTS.

Shewing the nature, quantities and values of the articles imported to Singapore, and the places from whence imported, during the year ending 30th April, 1836.

	Sp. drs.
Alum, ...from China, 10 pls.	20
Anchors, Grapnels, and Chains,	
from Great Britain 7 cks. containing Chains, and 6 Chains wg. 85 cwt. 20 lbs., 25 Cables, wg. 1309 cwt.. 56 Anchors, wg. 770½ cwt	14,383
For. Europe, 2 Chains wg. 20 pls.	100

			Sp. drs.
Antimony Ore, —			
from Borneo, 31,145 pls.			24,872
Arms,....from Great Britain 9,650 muskets, 319 fowling pieces, 2 cases brass guns; 4 cases arms, 3 rifles, 100 swords, 198 guns and carriages, and 50 pairs horse-pistols			45,778
For. Europe, 20 muskets, and twelve fowling-pieces			420
Cape of Good Hope and New South Wales, 400 muskets, &c.			1,894
Beche de Mer,—			Sp. drs.
from Madras	380	pls.	1,140
Manilla	250	..	3,750
Ceylon	314	..	1,552
Java	885	..	23,906
Sumatra	40	..	480
East side Peninsula	15	..	255
Celebes	746	..	12,755
Borneo	459	..	5,067
Bally	36	..	526
N. Island	698	..	10,662
	3,823	..	60,093
Benjamin, from Java	55¼	pls.	1,816
Siam	5	..	125
Sumatra	426	..	4,652
N. Islands, &c	7	..	76
	493¼	..	6,669
Bees' Wax, from Java	6	pls.	126
Rhio	5	..	135
Sumatra	168	..	3,712
West side Peninsula	5	..	125
Celebes	279	..	6,335

		Sp. drs.
Bees' Wax, (*continuea.*)		
from Borneo.....	388 pls.	8,360
Bally	12 ..	267
N. Islands, &c.....	132 ..	1,913
	995 ..	20,973
Beer, ... from Great Britain, 211 casks, 5 butts and 157 dozens.....		8,281
Birds' Feathers, &c.,—		
from Ceylon 4 boxes		345
Celebes 660 boxes, and 76 birds of paradise.....		1,518
Borneo, 1 corge		20
		1,883
Birds' Nests,—		
from Java	59 pls.	101,949
Sumatra	5 ..	121
E. S. Penins.....	0½ ..	150
Celebes.....	14 ..	10,190
Borneo	129 ..	30,355
Bally	1½ ..	2,755
N. Islands, &c.....	3 ..	2,295
	212½ ..	147,815
Betel-nut, from Sumatra	13,632 pls.	24,946
E. S. Penins.....	10 ..	23
Celebes.....	40 ..	80
Borneo	58 ..	82
N. Islands,' &c....	6 ..	24
	13,746 ..	25,155
Brassware from Great Britain	8½ pls.	247
Calcutta	3½ ..	119
Bombay	10 ..	600

			Sp. drs.
Brass-ware, (*continued.*)			
from China, 1 box and 3 bundles			235
Java		valued at	2,175
Sumatra	7 pls.		140
			3,516
Camphor, from China (Japan)	235	..	5,640
Java (ditto)	25	..	700
	260	..	6,340
Camphor Barus,—			
from Java	..	28 ctys.	728
Borneo	11 pls.	12 ..	10,478
	11 pls.	40 ctys.	11,206
Canvass, from Great Britain	589 bolts.		5,188
Foreign Europe	200	..	3,000
U. S. America	32	..	448
Calcutta	50	..	200
Ceylon	65	..	468
	936	..	9,304
Cassia, from China	3,436¼ pls.		39,604
Chinaware, —			
from China, valued at			93,092
Siam do			2,147
Cochin China, valued at			80
N. Islands, &c do			500
			95,819
Coffee, from Manilla	7 pls.		70
Java	9	..	98
Sumatra	5,940	..	44,842
E. S. Penins	112	..	1,018

			Sp. drs.
Coffee, (*continued.*)			
from	Celebes	1,670 pls.	14,098
	Bally	82 ..	636
	N. Islands, &c	119 ..	994
		7,939 .	61,756
Copperware, —			
from	Calcutta 2 boxes ..	10 pls.....	363
	China, 1 bdl. 8 bxs.	100 pls.....	753
	Java, ...	32 pls.....	1,528
	Borneo, ...	5 pls.....	250
	N. Islands, &c.,....	4 pls	57
			2,951
Copper, ...	Cochin China	450 pls.	9,300
	Peruvian	150 ..	3,750
		600 ..	13,050
Copper Sheathing, from Great Britain, 2,100 plates, 312 pls., and 65½ pls. nails, tacks, and rivets			16,728
	Calcutta 75 pls.....		2,873
	Java 27½ pls.....		1,100
	Cochin China 10 pls.		180
			20,881
Cordage..	from Great Britain	696 pls.	6,684
	Foreign Europe ..	250 ..	2,300
	U. S. America, ...	220 coils	1,180
	Calcutta	53¾ pls.	640
	Manilla.....	72½ ..	725
	Ceylon	1,715 ..	4,669
		220 coils & 2,787 pls.	16,198
Cotton, ..	from Calcutta, 350 bls...	1,139 pls.	21,060
	Bombay.....	186 ..	2,308

			Sp. Drs.
Cotton, (*continued.*)			
from	Manilla.....	184 pls.	3,456
	Java	1,105 ..	10,751
	Rhio	11 ..	134
	Sumatra	2,230 ..	12,134
	N. Islands, &c...	150 ..	1,800
		350 bales, & 5,005 ..	51,643
Cotton Twist—			
from	Great Britain	933 pls.	58,994
	For. Europe, coloured	18 ..	2,340
	Canton, coloured..	30 ..	2,700
	Java	69 ..	4,223
		1,050 ..	68,257
Dholl, .. from	Calcutta, 50 bags		125
Dragon's Blood			
from	Java	25 pls.	375
	Sumatra	90 ..	790
		115 ..	1,165
Earthenware,—			
from	Great Britain, 165 crates, and 22,019 doz.		31,516
	Madras, 20,000 in No.		300
	China, 80,550 in No. and 1,950 sets		8,591
	Java, 200 in No.		17
	N. Islands, &c. 1000 in No.		150
			40,574
Ebony, .. from	Mauritius	22 pls.	66
	Calcutta	84 ..	209
	Madras	3,240 ..	6,822
	Manilla.....	290 ..	290
	Ceylon	7,977 ..	19,872
	Java	315 ..	585

			Sp. Drs.
Ebony, (*continued.*)			
Rhio	22	pls.	66
Cochin China	80	..	120
East side Peninsula	56	..	132
West side Peninsula	251	..	380
Celebes	1,200	..	2,400
Borneo	450	..	900
N. Islands, &c..	270	..	577
	14,257	..	32,419
Ghee, ...from Calcutta	12	pls.	180
Madras	179	..	2,993
Ceylon, 401 gallons			216
Java	4	.	32
East side Peninsula	26	..	520
Bally	1		30
N. Islands, &c...	80	..	1,080
	401 gals. & 302	pls.	5,051
Gambier, from Java.....	100	pls.	100
Rhio	12,097	..	14,534
C. China (retd.)..	400	..	480
Sumatra	117	..	392
N. Islands, &c ...	910	..	1,280
	13,624	..	16,786
Gold Dust, from Java.....	596	bnkls.	14,523
Sumatra	217	..	5,936
East side Penins .	4,703	..	143,840
W. ditto	40	..	1,200
Celebes	889	..	23,230
Borneo	4,823	..	128,748
N. Islands, &c. ..	80	..	2,200
	11,348	..	319,677

			Sp. Drs.
Glassware, from Great Britain, 242 cks; 181 packages and 70 doz.			23,480
For. Europe, 100 lamps			340
United States America, 10 doz.			10
China, 1 box			30
Java, 101 packages, and 1385 doz. wine glasses			6,275
			30,135
Gold Thread, (Eur.)—			
from Great Britain	25¾	ctys.	1,466
For. Europe	14½	..	825
Arabia	50	..	900
China	10	..	600
Java	39½	..	5,750
	139¾	..	9,541
Gold Thread, (China)—			
from China, 831 boxes, and 56 chests			11,016
Java, 3 boxes and 1 basket			60
East side of Peninsula, 8 boxes			48
			11,124
Grain, from.... Calcutta	799	bags	2,297
Bombay	48	..	144
N. Islands, &c.	652	..	961
	1,499	..	3,402
Gunnies, from Calcutta	281,150		24,745
Gunpowder, —			
from Great Britain	98,750	lbs.	20,793
U. S. America	500	..	100
	99,250		20,893

				Sp. Drs.
Hides, ..	from U. S. America, 100 doz. of Morocco skins			900
	Calcutta	60	pls.	325
	Manilla	297	.	1,358
	Ceylon.....	346	..	1,258
	China	6	..	20
	Java, 994 in No. and	1,702	..	7,519
	Rhio	220	..	630
	Siam	115	..	575
	Sumatra.....	58	..	175
	East side Peninsula	465	..	1,870
	West side Peninsula	5	..	18
	Celebes	50	..	183
	Borneo	250	..	875
	Bally	70	..	216
	N. Islands, &c.	26	..	104
	100 doz. 994 in No. and	3,670	pls.	16,026
Ivory,....	from Madras	42	ctys.	42
	Java	900	..	788
	Rhio	50	..	50
	Siam	1,200	..	872
	Sumatra.....	600	..	479
	East side Peninsula	450	..	383
	N. Islands, &c. ..	500	..	314
		3,742	..	2,928
Indigo, ..	from Manilla	201	pls.	2,010
	Java	514	..	2,370
	C. China	27	..	2,970
	Sumatra	8	..	32
		750		7,382
Iron, ..	from Great Britain: 16,750 pls. English; 420 pls. Swedish iron; 80 cwt. and 129 pls. English, 168 pls. and 420 boxes Swedish steel.....			49,409

			Sp. Drs.
Iron, *(continued.)*			
from Foreign Europe, 582 pls.			2,161
Cochin China, 300 pls. and 10 kegs. returned			720
Sumatra, 160 pls. and 70 tubs steel			850
18,242 pls. iron, and 786 pls. steel			53,140
Iron ware and mongery—			
from Great Britain, valued at			15,486
Foreign Europe, 186 pls. nails, and 100 doz. knives			1,359
Bombay, 2 chests			50
China, valued at			1,386
Siam, 13,980 sets pans			12,379
Sumatra, 33 pls. nails			231
East side of Peninsula, 52 cor. and 320 iron pans			1,516
Borneo, 10 kegs nails			192
			32,599
Lead, from.... Great Britain	98	pls.	490
Foreign Europe ..	165	..	825
	263	..	1,315
Mother of Pearl Shells,—			
from Calcutta	170	pls.	850
Madras	40	..	240
Manilla	277	..	4,046
Java	379	..	5,308
Sumatra	30	..	210
Celebes	2,239	..	21,277
Borneo	87	..	820
	3,222	..	32,751

			Sp. Drs.
Nankeens, from	China	601 bxs.	25,715
	East side Peninsula	20 cor.	120
			25,835
Oils, ... from	Foreign Europe, 62 doz. olive.....		298
	Calcutta, 12 doz. castor		36
	Bombay, 16 ctys. sandalwood		100
	Arabia	3½ pls.	75
	Manilla.....	1,388 .	8,554
	Ceylon	14 ..	88
	Java, 48 qrts. spice oil, 241 btls. kayu putih oil, and ..	100 ..	1,386
	Siam	1,310 ..	8,485
	Cochin China	41 ..	313
	Celebes, 87 bottles kayu putih oil, and.....	50 ..	437
	Borneo	7 ..	21
	Bally	7½ ..	58
	N. Islands, &c., .. 5 cks. sperm, and	400 ..	2,826
		3,321	22,677
Opium, .. from	Great Britain	4 chs.	2,000
	Calcutta	1,640 ..	957,855
	Bombay.....	195 ..	117,195
	China.....	6 ..	3,543
	Cochin China	2 ..	1,320
	Sumatra, returned .	2 ..	1,160
		1,849 ..	1,083,073
Paddy, .. from	Java	102 pls.	46
	Siam	1,600 ..	934
	Sumatra..... ..	750 ..	469

			Sp. drs.
Paddy, (*continued.*)			
	W. S. Peninsula ..	84 ..	53
	Celebes	400 ..	400
	Borneo	200 ..	108
	N. Islands	3,080 ..	3,612
		6,216 ..	5,622
Paints,	..from Great Britain, 480 kegs, and 120 cwt.		3,077
	For. Europe, 30 pls. white lead		350
	China, 40 pls.		2,510
	Java, 4,690 lbs.		422
			6,359
Pepper,	..from Java { long ..... 877 pls. / black ..... 1,843 .. }		18,176
	Rhio	12,682 ..	82,483
	Sumatra.....	113 ..	699
	E. S. Penins. { black 1,589 .. / white 53 .. }		11,225
	West side Peninsula	8 ..	48
	Borneo	2,933 ..	17,847
	Bally	7 ..	42
	N. Islands, &c.....	872½ ..	5,689
		20,977½	136,209
Provisions,	from Great Britain, 3 packages, 18,000 lbs., 79 barrels, 22 kids pork		4,220
	Foreign Europe, 15 tongues, 15 breasts, 20 hams, 600 lbs., 4 casks, pork, 46½ pls., and 9 casks beef		1,359
	United States America, 150 hams, 7 half barrels tongues, 3,900 lbs. cheese, and 2,438 packages		9,853
	Java, 50 casks		500
			15,932

	Sp. drs.
Piece-goods, (European),—	
from Great Britain, 1,320 ps. and 10,765 yards	12,176
Ditto, 174 packages, 2,915,187 yards, 125,856 ps., 4 cases, 3,986 dozen, and 1 bale	663,403
Madras, 36 corges	2,880
China, 111 ps. cottons	758
Java, 44,739 ps., 129,549 yards, 7,891½ doz., and 3 cases	142,317
Sumatra, 301 pieces	1,454
Borneo, 625 pieces	2,850
From United States, 2,521 ps.	14,548
Foreign European, 71,960 yds., 150 ps., 205 doz., and 8 cases	12,700
Java, 33,638 ps., and 450 doz.	100,468
	953,554
Piece-goods, India,—	
from Calcutta, 7,451 corges, and 200 dozen..	135,110
Madras, 10,866 corges	132,679
Bombay, 545 corges	19,578
Ceylon, 5 bales, and 33 ps.	235
Siam, 26 pieces	320
Cochin China, 10 corges, (returned)....	200
Sumatra, 5 corges	175
Neighbouring Islands and other ports, 5½ corges	103
	288,400
Ratans, ..from Java, 54,688 bundles, and 12,658 pls. ..	34,589
Sumatra, 28,550 bdls., and 3,620 pls. ..	8,261
East side Peninsula, 5,100 bundles, and 134 pls.	973
W. S. ditto, 423 bdls., and 819 pls..	1,243
Celebes, 40 pls.	120

			Sp. drs.
Rattans, (*continued.*)			
	Borneo, 357,911 bdls., and 5,632 pls. ..		28,776
	N. Islands, &c., 34,130, and 30 pls.		2,738
	480,802 bdls. and 22,933 pls.		76,700
Raw Silk, from China, 179 pls., and 159 chs., and 1 bale			113,942
	Siam, 2 chests		700
	Cochin China, 7 pls.		1,600
	East side of Peninsula, 5 pls.....		1,120
	192 pls., 161 chs., and 1 bale		117,362
Rice, ..from	Calcutta, 6167 bags,	7,401 pls.	14,042
	Madras, 460 maunds.	276 ..	325
	China.....	760 ..	1,130
	Java	53,858 ..	86,479
	Rhio	8,360 ..	12,349
	Siam	38,050 ..	43,330
	Cochin China	8,900 ..	10,356
	Sumatra.....	2,708 ..	3,682
	East side Peninsula	1,315 ..	2,375
	West side ditto	190 ..	312
	Celebes	7,556 ..	10,511
	Borneo.....	1,900 ..	2,535
	Bally	26,450 ..	37,274
	Neigh. Islands, &c.	860 ..	1,595
		158,584 ..	226,295
Sago, ...from	Sumatra, ...	157,750 bdls.	10,972
	West side Peninsula	140 ..	9
	Borneo, 1,308 pls..	140,560 ..	9,102
	N. Islands, 140 pls.	15,251 ..	1,227
		313,691 ..	21,310

			Sp. drs.
Salt.....from	Foreign Europe ..	1,693 pls.	672
	Arabia	1,000 ..	400
	China.....	1,280 ..	670
	Java	400 ..	250
	Siam	17,660 ..	7,959
	Cochin China ...	13,580 ..	4,388
		35,613 .	14,339
Saltpetre, from	Calcutta	1,059 pls.	7,451
	Bombay.....	106 ..	1,590
		1,165 ..	9,041
Sea-weed, from	Java	54 pls.	113
	Celebes.....	700 ..	1,430
	N. Islands, &c. ..	2,043 ..	4,869
		2,797 ..	6,412
Segars, ..from	U. S. America ..	40,000 in No.	280
	Manilla	16,955,850 ..	89,468
	China, 33 bxs. or	33,000 ..	165
		17,028,850 ..	89,913
Spices, ..from	Java, Cloves	205 pls.	
	Do. Nutmegs....	287½ ..	41,845
	Do. Mace	74½ ..	
	Sumatra, Nutmegs.	40 ..	400
	Celebes, ditto, &c.	13 ..	
	Ditto, Mace	50 ctys.	920
	Borneo, wild nuts..	10 pls.	102
		680 ..	43,267
Spelter, ..from	Great Britain	605 pls.	3,296
	Java	415 ..	2,078
		1,020 ..	5,374

			Sp. drs.
Sticlac, ..	from Java	130 pls.	585
	Siam.....	1,059 ..	18,264
	East side Peninsula	82 ..	1,644
		1,271 ..	20,493
Sugar-Candy,	from China	110 pls.	1,519
	Java	36 ..	369
	Siam	192 ..	2,250
		338 ..	4,138
Sugar, ..	from Manilla.....	4,359 pls.	23,190
	Java	2,906 ..	17,043
	Rhio	40 ..	240
	Siam	19,325 ..	114,453
	Cochin China	8,430 ..	27,055
	East side Peninsula	720 ..	4,210
	Borneo	1,247 ..	2,494
		37,027 ..	188,685
Tea, ...	from Gr. Britain, 68 bxs.	24 pls.	526
	China ..2,167 ..	1,365 ..	57,509
	Java .... — ..	16 ..	440
	Rhio .... 80 ..	— ..	410
	Siam .... 142 ..	— ..	861
	C. China. 100 ..	— ..	800
	E.S. Penin. 190 ..	2½ ..	1,060
	Borneo .. — ..	20 ..	500
	N. Islands — ..	8 ..	458
	2,747 ..	1,425½ ..	62,564
Tin, ...	from Java	9,732 pls.	155,527
	Rhio.....	180 ..	2,700
	East side Peninsula	4,616 ..	72,769
	West ditto	2,560 ..	34,911
	N. Islands, &c. ..	3,093 ..	47,461
		20,181 ..	313,368

		Sp. drs.
Tobacco, from	U. S. America, 170 lbs. and 252 kegs ..	1,556
	Calcutta, 6 mds. leaf, and 24 ditto hooka, or 18 pls.	56
	China, 1,291 bsks., 42 bxs., and 881 pls.	47,239
	Java, 98½ cor., 6,104 bsks., and 164 pls.	44,139
	Rhio, 5 boxes, and 5 corges	1,115
	Cochin China, 5 baskets.....	19
	East side Peninsula, 10 boxes	100
	Celebes, 10 pls.	70
	Borneo, 320 baskets, and 3 pls.....	1,184
	Bally, 765 pls.	8,288
	N. Islands, &c., 20 baskets and 52 pls..	664
		104,430

Tortoiseshell,—				
from	Bombay	— pls.	50 ctys.	350
	Arabia, ...	2 ..	25 ..	780
	Java	10 ..	44 ..	10,059
	Sumatra	— ..	50 ..	800
	E.S.Peninsula	— ..	40 ..	260
	Celebes	74 .	— ..	61,887
	Borneo	11 ..	54 ..	8,624
	Bally	5 ..	25 ..	4,021
	N.Islands,&c.	6 ..	52 ..	4,882
		111 ..		91,663

Wheat, ..from	Calcutta	5,035 bags	13,978
	Bombay.....	20 ..	45
	Ceylon	300 ..	600
	N. Islands, &c.....	799 .	997
		6,154 ..	15,620

Wine,....from	Great Britain, valued at.....	13,445
	Foreign Europe, &c.	10,578

			Sp. drs.
Wine, (*continued.*)			
from U. S. America, 42 cases, cider			100
Calcutta, 3 dozen claret			18
Madras 50 ditto			250
Manilla, 925 doz., and 1,220 galls. sherry			1,565
China, 30 gallons Lisbon			18
Java, 2 pipes Madeira, and 3 pipes and 60 dozen sherry			1,470
N. Islands, &c., 200 gallons Lisbon			120
			27,564
Garro-wood,—			
from Java	7 pls.		1,050
East side Peninsula	3 ..		192
West ditto	2 ..		132
Borneo	49 ..		5,957
N. Islands, &c. ..	139 ..		1,378
	200 .		8,009
Sandal-wood,—			
from Java	1,375 pls.		18,490
Celebes	196½ ..		1,910
Borneo	8 ..		56
Bally	13 ..		80
	1,592 ..		20,536
Booko-wood, from Celebes	2 pls.		35
Laka-wood, from Java	166 pls.		249
Sumatra	598 ..		874
East side Peninsula	100 ..		145
West ditto	248 .		474
Borneo	2,705 ..		4,472
N. Islands, &c.	87 ..		170
	3,904 ..		6,384

		Sp. drs.
Sapan-wood, from Manilla	5,261 pls.	8,802
Java	350 ..	700
Siam	5,352 ..	11,674
N. Islands, &c.....	1,071 ..	2,142
	12,034 ..	23,318
Woollens, from Great Britain, 4,455 ps., and 6,054 yds., 1 case.....		48,976
Foreign Europe, 1,592 ps.		2,570
Bombay, 60 ps.		1,000
China, black camblet, 20 ps.		193
Java, 600 ps. and 1,095 yards		9,394
5,135 ps., 8,741 yds., 1 case		62,133
Spirits, (Europe,)—		
from Great Britain, 3,686 gallons brandy, and 19 cases gin		4,724
Foreign Europe, 501 dozen, 3,407 galls., 1,713 cases		12,876
Calcutta, 10 gallons brandy		15
Madras, 1,588 gallons ditto		2,400
Manilla, 6,546 gallons rum		3,990
Java, 480 galls. brandy, 6,541 cases gin		26,938
501 doz., 15,717 gals., 8,273 cs.		50,943
Spirits, (Asiatic,)—		
from Ceylon, 1,281 gallons arrack		375
Java, 25,728 do. do., and 78 casks..		7,856
Siam, 11 casks		220
27,009 gals. and 89 casks		8,451
Europe Sundries,—		
from Great Britain .....valued at		56,772
Foreign Europe		10,584
Calcutta.....		250

		Sp. drs.
Europe Sundries, (*continued.*)		
from Madras	valued at	168
Manilla		350
China		300
Java		8,088
		76,512
American Sundries, from U. S. America,	valued at	9,122
India Sundries,—		
from Calcutta	valued at	8,024
Madras		894
Bombay		5,264
Arabia		4,240
Ceylon		1,176
China		100
Bally		21
N. Islands, &c.		7,942
		27,661
China, Sundries—		
from Bombay,	valued at	50
Manilla		967
China		152,440
Java		586
Rhio		126
Siam		1,055
Cochin China		138
East side Peninsula		200
		155,562
Sundries from Java,	valued at	26,145
Rhio		2,636
Sumatra		52
		28,833

	Sp. Drs.
Straits Sundries,—	
from Sumatra, ...valued at	2,655
West side Peninsula	1,242
	3,897
Eastern Sundries,—	
from Manilla, ...valued at	8,842
Ceylon.....	22
Java.....	1,633
Rhio	388
Siam	6,483
Cochin China	2,760
Sumatra	2,669
East side Peninsula	1,584
Celebes	32,287
Borneo	7,137
Bally	1,240
Neighbouring Islands, &c.	5,644
	70,689
Spanish Dollars,—	
from Great Britain .....valued at	14,000
United States America	87,800
Mauritius, Cape Good Hope, &c.	2,900
Bombay	13,000
Manilla	3,000
China	138,924
Java.....	48,374
Rhio.....	7,933
Siam	12,120
Sumatra	12,150
East side of Peninsula	24,910
West Ditto ditto	6,403
Celebes	21,650
Borneo.....	5,290

			Sp. Drs.
Spanish Dollars, (*continued.*)			
from Bally		valued at	4,270
Neighbouring Islands, &c.			12,296
			415,020
Madras Rupees, from N. Islands, &c.			230
Java Rupees,—			
from Java			4,709
Sumatra			300
Neighbouring Islands, &c.			1,800
			7,039
Sycee Silver, from China			2,000
Cowries, .. from Manilla	1,229	pls.	2,253
Java	53	..	150
	1,282	..	2,403
Copper Coins, from Great Britain			25,072
Ticals, .. from Siam, 60,760 in No.			35,913
Doubloons, from Java, 140 in No.			980

EXPORTS.

Shewing the nature, quantities, and values of the articles exported from Singapore, and the places to which exported, during the year ending 30th April, 1836.

Alum, to ...	Madras	20	pls.	40
	Sumatra	60	..	90
		80	..	130

		Sp. Drs.
Anchors & Grapnels,—		
to Calcutta, 6 chain cables, weighing 279 cwt., and 3 anchors, weighing 18½ cwt.		2,014
Rhio, 4 anchors and 180 chains		3,163
Siam, 17 anchors, weighing 41¾ cwt; 17 chains, weighing 59 cwt., 2 anchors and 1 chain, weight not mentioned		1,978
Celebes and other East Islands, 19$\frac{24}{100}$ pls.		173
Neighbouring Islands, &c. 1 in No. weighing 31 cwt.		217
		7,545
Antimony Ore, to Great Britain	23,379 pls.	
China	3,387 ..	
United States	908 .	
Mauritius	1,120 ..	
	28,794 ..	
Arms, ... to Calcutta, 36 rifles		288
Java, 5 fowling pieces, 5 pairs of pistols and 6 iron guns		700
Rhio, 50 cases		3,000
Siam, 5 iron guns, and 50 muskets		1,215
Cochin China, 300 muskets, and 290 birding guns		1,915
Sumatra, 600 muskets		2,475
East side Peninsula, 120 muskets		360
Celebes and other East Ports, 647 muskets		2,525
Borneo, 22 swords and 1,600 muskets		5,507
Bally, 200 muskets		620
N. Islands, &c. 806 muskets		2,615
		21,220

			Sp. Drs.
Beche-de-mer,—			
	to China	4,164 pls.	74,723
	Borneo	2 ..	50
		4,166 ..	74,773
Benjamin, ..	to Great Britain	200 pls.	8,708
	Calcutta	12 ..	340
	Madras	90¼ ..	1,013
	Bombay.....	130 ..	451
	Arabia	206 ..	2,630
	Java	18 ..	220
	Rhio	2 ..	50
	Celebes.....	5 ..	120
	Borneo	4 ..	80
		667¼ ..	13,612
Bees' Wax,..	to Great Britain	983 pls.	22,656
	Foreign Europe....	22 ..	513
	Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	21 ..	474
	Calcutta	40 ..	995
	Java.	38 ..	719
	Siam	372 ..	8,475
	East side Peninsula	68 ..	1,665
	West Ditto ditto..	½ ..	12
		1,544½ ..	35,509
Beer, ...	to Manilla, 15 casks and 108 doz.....		645
	Java, 1 cask, and 36 doz.		92
	Borneo, 2 casks		24
			761

Birds' Feathers,	to Great Britain, 449 in No., 1 case, and birds of Paradise			Sp. Drs. 1,187
	China, 7,000 in No.			400
				1,587
Birds' Nests,	to China	277	pls.	162,852
Betel-nut,	to North America	383	pls.	671
	Calcutta	2,176	..	3,589
	Madras	5	..	7
	Bombay	923	..	1,383
	China	21,729	..	44,962
	Siam	732	..	1,546
		25,948	..	52,158
Brass-ware,	to Java ..... valued at			157
	Sumatra			208
	West side Peninsula			52
	Celebes, and other East Islands, 5 corges			40
				457
Camphor, (China)—				
	to Great Britain	25	pls.	750
	Madras	36	ctys.	9
				759
Ditto (Malay)	to Bombay	— pls.	12 ctys.	240
	China	10 ..	41 ..	16,155
	Siam	— ..	20 ..	300
		10 ..	73 ..	16,695
Canvass	to North America	59	bolts	623
	Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	292	..	992

			Sp. Drs.
Canvass, (*continued.*)			
	to Calcutta	633 bolts.	5,931
	China	140 .	1,120
	Java, Bengal and Europe	50 / 127	1,724
	Cochin China	267 ..	2,476
	Sumatra	22 ..	66
	Celebes, &c.....	10 ..	100
	Borneo	1 ..	12
	Neighbouring Islands, &c.....	18 ..	147
		1,619 ..	13,191
Cassia, ...	to Great Britain	1,988 ..	22,298
	Foreign Europe ..	305 ..	3,355
	North America....	375 .	3,956
	Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	55 ..	597
	Calcutta	371 ..	3,951
	Bombay	284 ..	2,962
	Java	298 ..	3,340
		3,676 ..	40,459
Chinaware,..	to Madras		94
	Ceylon		1,097
	Java		22,336
	Rhio		1,980
	Sumatra		3,196
	East side Peninsula.....		60
	West side Peninsula		27
	Celebes, &c...		3,138
	Borneo		3,080

			Sp. Drs.
Chinaware, (*continued.*)			
to Bally			1,536
Nicobar Islands, &c.			2,499
			39,043
Coffee, ... to Great Britain	6,059	pls.	53,644
Foreign Europe ..	5,298	..	42,649
North America ..	3,576	..	34,279
Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New S. Wales	682	..	5,886
Calcutta	2	..	12
Bombay	1	..	7
Borneo.....	2	..	20
	15,620	..	136,497
Copper, ... to Calcutta, Peruvian	38½	..	883
Java, Cochin China	300	.	6,433
	338½	..	7,316
Copper Sheathing and Nails,—			
to Siam	16½	pls.	330
Sumatra.....	50	..	1,800
Cochin China	100	..	3,500
	166	..	5,630
Cordage, ... to Great Britain	361	..	2,524
Foreign Europe ..	79	..	474
North America....	384	..	1,666
Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	734	..	2,608
Calcutta	29	.	231
Madras	18	..	144
Manilla.....	94 pls.	8 ctys.	1,120
China	130	..	795

			Sp. Drs.
Cordage, (*continued.*)			
to Java	288 pls.		1,184
Sumatra	25 ..		75
Celebes, &c.....	5 pls.	35 ctys.	24
N. Islands, &c. ..	1 ..	82 ..	16
	2,149¼ pls.		10,861
Cotton.....to Great Britain	164 pls.		3,116
China	2,185 ..		16,496
Java	10 ..		180
East side Peninsula	50 ..		600
	2,409 ..		20,392
Cotton-twist, to Great Britain, colrd.	33 pls.		2,541
Calcutta..... .	66 ..		5,619
China.....	369 ..		18,100
Java, 50 bundles .	— ..		50
Siam	278 ..		19,913
Sumatra, 10 bundles	52½..		818
E. S. Penin. 77 do.	471 ..		40,867
Celebes, &c. 234 cor.	735 ..		44,244
Borneo, 105 bundles, 28 corges, and ..	44 ..		2,627
Bally, 28 bundles .	— ..		111
N.Islands,&c.132do.	½..		532
402 bdls. and 262 cor.	2,049 ..		135,422
Dholl .....to Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and N. South Wales..	48 pls.		80
	—		—
Dragon's blood,—			
to Great Britain	21 pls.		432
N. America	9 ..		290

Dragon's blood, (*continued.*)				Sp. drs.
	to China.....	18 pls.		288
	Java	10 ..		293
		58 ..		1,303
Earthenware, to Madras, 243 dozen				159
	Manilla, 1,080 do.....			1,080
	China, 1 crate			50
	Java, ...valued			1,907
	Rhio, 120 dozen			60
	Siam, 1,670 do.			1,377
	Sumatra.....valued			716
	East side Peninsula, 1,010 in No.....			91
	West ditto 4,060 do.			421
	Celebes, 1,021 dozen			1,153
	Borneo, 178 do.			134
	Bally .....valued			995
	Neighbouring Islands, &c..... do.			707
				8,850
Ebony.....to Great Britain		73 pls.		146
	China	10,660 ..		33,199
	Rhio	650 ..		1,410
	Siam	2,820 ..		9,200
		14,203 ..		43,955
Ghee, ...to Java		58 pls.	20 ctys.	939
Grain .....to Mauritius, Cape of G. Hope, and N. S. Wales, 20 mds.		160 pls.		400
Java, 222 maunds., 20 ctys.		177 ..		173
		337 ..		573

			Sp. drs.
Gambier,....	to Great Britain	9,921 pls.	16,339
	N. America	49 ..	98
	Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	116 ..	204
	Calcutta.....	7,096 ..	10,230
	Madras	20 ..	25
	Bombay.....	303 ..	378
	China.....	1,095 ..	1,902
	Siam	1,060 ..	1,395
	Cochin China	3,310 ..	4,708
	Sumatra.....	12 ..	17
	East side Peninsula	50 ..	62
	West ditto	229 ..	337
	Celebes, &c.....	9,961 ..	13,334
	Borneo	2,725 ..	3,792
	Bally	1,159 ..	1,572
	N. Islands, &c.....	200 ..	277
		37,306	54,670
Gold-dust, ..	to Great Britain	150 bkls.	4,355
	Foreign Europe ..	9 ..	252
	Mauritius, &c.	40 ..	1,200
	Calcutta	15,548½ ..	473,565
	Madras	10 ..	250
	Bombay.....	1,373 ..	38,683
	Arabia	20 ..	607
	China.....	70 ..	2,100
	West side Peninsula	60 ..	1,740
	Celebes, &c.....	18 ..	520
	Bally	10 ..	250
		17,308½ ..	523,522

			Sp. drs.
Glass-ware, to	Calcutta, 100 cases		525
	Madras, 12 globe lamps, 12 dozen tumblers, and 16 lamps		191
	Manilla, 800 dozen wine-glasses, 76 pairs lamps, 2 chandeliers, and 28 cases		3,342
	China, 56 casks		2,760
	Java, 160 vase lamps, and 48 baskets lamps, 21 pairs, and 10 cases		1,171
	Siam, 100 dozen and 5 boxes		145
	Cochin China, 4 dozen		24
	Sumatra	valued	112
	Borneo, 17 lamps		36
	Neighbouring Islands, &c.	valued	150
			8,456
Gold-thread,	Europe, to China, 47¼ ctys.		4,554
	China, to Java, 239 boxes, 29 packages, and 17 bundles		2,878
	Sumatra, 232 boxes		1,488
	Celebes, &c., 215 boxes		461
	Bally, 12 boxes, and 1,600 bundles		584
	Neighbouring Islands, &c., 71 boxes		378
			10,343
Gunnies, to	N. America	64,000 in No.	5,760
	Mauritius, &c.	14,000 ..	1,111
	Manilla	1,000 ..	90
	Java	185,750 ..	15,252
		264,750 ..	22,213
Gunpowder, to	Java, 700 cans.	7¼ pls.	365
	Rhio, 320 do.	— ..	123
	Sumatra	22 ..	269
	E. S. Penins.	1 ..	26
	W. ditto	12¼ ..	159

				Sp. drs.
Gunpowder, (*continued.*),				
	Celebes, &c.	73½ pls.		1,063
	Borneo	83 ..		2,001
	Bally	10 ..		114
	N. Islands, &c. ..	28 ..		451
	1,020 cans.	237¼ ..		4,571
Hides, to.....	Great Britain	4,011 pls.		13,950
	Foreign Europe ..	202 ..		770
	N. America	122 ..		563
	China.....	200 ..		800
		4,535 ..		16,083
Ivory, to.....	Great Britain.....	57 pls.	58 ctys.	5,053
	Bombay.....	4 ..	39 ..	439
	China.....	¼ ..		32
	Java	2 ..		225
	Celebes, &c.	5 ..		500
	Borneo	1 ..		100
	Bally	3 ..		300
		72¼ ..		6,649
Iron and Steel, to	Calcutta, 51 1 2 tons steel	264 pls.		1,431
	Madras, 148 pls. Madras steel	60 ..		870
	Manilla, 49 pls. steel, and 100 kegs do.	2,627 ..		9,753
	China.....	2,054 ..		5,862
	Java	1,836 ..		5,537
	Rhio	310 ..		858
	Siam, steel, 75 pls. iron	1,310 ..		4,560
	C. China, 10 tubes	300 ..		790
	Sumatra, and 130 kegs steel	1,593 ..		6,390

			Sp. drs.
Iron and Steel, (*continued.*)			
	E. S. Penins., and 40 kegs steel, 21 ctys.	1,050 pls.	3,357
	W.S. do. 1 keg steel &	23 ..	74
	Celebes, and other E. Islands	2,057 ..	7,315
	Borneo, 175 kegs steel, and	1,886 ..	6,775
	Bally	6 ..	20
	N. Islands, &c., 75 kegs steel, and ..	527 ..	1,817
124 pls. and 521 kegs steel, and 148 pls. Madras steel		15,963 ..	55,409

Iron-ware and mongery, to Madras, 2 packages iron hinges, and 105 iron pans		26
Madras, 102 pls. nails, 24 iron chests, and 6 casks hardware		2,984
Java, 1,060 sets, 20½ corges, and 767 in No. 3,500 parangs		2,100
Rhio, 1 corge pans		15
C. China, 150 pans, and 3,800 gun-locks		2,485
Sumatra, ...valued at		2,796
W. S. of Penins.		273
Celebes, &c.,.....valued at		5,510
Borneo, 19,463 pans, 520 sets, 100 bills, and 5 pls. nails		4,449
Bally .....valued at		1,416
Neighbouring Islands, &c.....		1,231
		23,285
Lead, to .....Java	18 pls.	185
Siam	175 ..	1,300
Rhio	10 ..	100
Cochin China ..	129 ..	709
Sumatra..	12 ..	68

			Sp. drs.
Lead, (*continued.*)			
	Celebes, &c.....	5 pls.	30
	Borneo	17 ..	111
		366 ..	2,503
Mother of Pearl Shell,—			
	to Great Britain	3,200 pls.	27,570
Nankeens ..	to Great Britain	330 cor.	3,440
	Java	1,395 ..	10,994
	Sumatra	39 ..	200
	W. S. Penins.	17 ..	115
	Celebes	37½ ..	240
	Borneo	2,473 ..	17,311
	N. Islands, &c....	93 ..	663
		4,384½ ..	32,963
Oils, ...	to Great Britain 300 btls. kayu putee, 72 btls. nutmeg, and cocoa-nut...	249 pls	1,706
	North America, 100 kayu putee oil ..	.. .	200
	Calcutta, 120 gals. paint oil.....	.. ..	30
	Madras, dammer oil	68 ..	153
	Bombay, 10 doz. kayu putee oil ..	.. ..	224
	China, 16 doz. salad oil	.. ..	48
	Java, 3 pls. paint cocoa-nut	169 ..	1,121
	Rhio, 2 jars linseed 10 jars, turpentine and cocoa-nut ..	124 ..	832
	Sumatra	73 .	492

				Sp. drs.
Oils, (*continued.*)				
	to E. S. Penins.....	10	pls.	40
	Borneo	10	..	65
	N. Islands, &c....	138	..	981
		841	..	5,892
Opium, ...	to N. America	4	chs.	2,660
	Mauritius, &c. ...	4	..	2,400
	Manilla.....	1	.	640
	China, Bengal, 12 balls and	314	..	252,327
	Malwa	104	..	
	Turkey	4	..	
	Java, 35 balls and..	164	..	118,495
	Rhio, 7 balls and .	8	..	5,252
	Siam, 20 do. do...	31	..	18,925
	Cochin China, 32 balls, and 39 pls., and	3¼	.	26,019
	Sumatra 18 bls. &..	18	..	11,767
	E. S. Penins.	264	..	166,963
	W. S. Penins.	4	..	2,385
	Celebes, 15 balls ..	111	..	71,162
	Borneo 7 balls....	121	..	73,490
	Bally.....	37¾	..	24,264
	N. Islands, &c....	30¼	..	18,528
	146 balls and	1,223¾	..	795,278
Pepper, ...	to Great Britain, black 11 white.....	13,990	pls.	91,289
	Foreign Europe ..	2,085	.. bk.	13,772
	N. America	3,017	..	19,793
	Mauritius, &c. white 11 pls.....	282	..	1,986
	Calcutta, 789 pls. long	6,890	..	44,839

			Sp. drs.
Pepper, (*continued.*)			
Bombay	47 pls.		269
Arabia, long 7 pls..	60 ..		417
Manilla	400 ..		2,596
China	7,972 ..		56,023
Java	401 ..		6,014
796 pls. long, 22 pls. white and	35,144 ..	black	236,998
Paddy, ... to Mauritius, &c.	120 pls.		400
Rhio	20 ..		20
	140 ..		420
Paints, ... to Rhio 24 kegs			125
Provisions, .. to Mauritius, 307 barrels			2,302
Manilla, 60 casks			1,320
Java, 254 barrels flour, 54 barrels pork, 4 kegs tongues, and 4 kegs hams			2,216
			5,838
Piece Goods, European,—			
to North America, 40 ps			200
Calcutta, 3,320 ps. and 53,540 yds.			20,669
Madras, 120 do.			610
Bombay, 1,590 do.			11,202
Manilla, 52,960 do. 681 dozs. and 785,301 yards			236,137
China, 8,265 ps. and 800 yards			20,796
Java, 640 do.			2,805
Rhio, 6 do. 130 cks. and 23 bales ..			25,938
Siam, 28,115 do. 300 dozs. and 4,812 yds.			58,155
Cochin China, 183 ps			853
Sumatra, 238 corges, and 50 doz.			16,443
E. S. Penins., 4,203 ps.			14,700
W. S. Penins., 44 ps. and 50 doz.			294
Celebes, &c., 1,694 cor. and 150 doz. . .			47,881

Piece-Goods, European, (*continued.*)				Sp. drs.
to Borneo, 130¼ corges				9,150
Bally, 105½ do.				4,583
N. Islands, &c. 91 corges and 370 dozens				5,829
				476,245
Piece-Goods, India,—				
to N. America	360 corges			1,204
Arabia	5			60
Manilla	85		7 trunks	7,062
Java, 200 doz. &...	8,798			135,900
Rhio,....do.....	115		& 64 bls.	16,940
Siam,....do.....	165¼			26,845
Cochin China.....	10			200
Sumatra	2,203			37,774
E. S. Penins	362			9,094
W. S. Penins.	11			380
Celebes	3,883			66,236
Borneo	4,949			110,934
Bally	740¾			10,119
N. Islands, &c....	645			12,450
				435,198
Piece-Gooods, China,—				
to Great Britain, 2 cases silks				950
Java, 296 rolls and 1 corge				7,617
Bally, 27 corges				874
				9,441
Piece-Goods, Malay.—				
to Java	112 corges			1,740
Rhio	6			190
Sumatra	585			10,837
E. S. Penins.....	801			16,440
W. S. Penins.	158			5,098

			Sp. drs.
Piece-Goods, (*continued.*)			
	Celebes	22 corges	680
	Borneo	660 ..	17,024
	N. Islands, &c	242 ..	5,047
			57,056
Ratans .... to	Great Britain	2,715 pls.	6,988
	For. Europe	306 ..	613
	N. America	1,007 ..	2,117
	Mauritius, &c.	258 ..	619
	Calcutta	6,525 ..	13,465
	Madras	175 ..	326
	Bombay	3,408 ..	7,598
	Ceylon	25 ..	63
	Manilla	395 ..	936
	China	16,660 ..	36,019
	Java	85 ..	127
	Rhio, 1,590 bdls. &	225 ..	585
	Siam	5,200 ..	9,533
	Cochin China	76 ..	205
		1,590 bdls. & 37,060 ..	79,194
Raw Silk .. to	Great Britain, 228 pls		70,675
	Bombay, 5 chests and 2 pls.		1,085
	China, 3 cases		960
	Java, 48 chs. 10 bdles. and 65¾ pls.		40,135
	Rhio, 1 chest and 5 bundles		380
	Sumatra, 36 chs. 4 bdles. and 5 pls.		12,680
	E. S. Penins. 41 bdles.		798
	W. S. Penins. 5 do.		85
	Celebes, &c., 30 boxes. 40 bundles and 20¼ pls		17,498
	Borneo, 2 chs. 59 bdles. and 9¼ pls.		5,155
	Bally, 44 bdls. and 3 pls.		1,665

Raw Silk, (*continued.*)			Sp. drs.
	N. Islands, &c., 43 ctys. 79 bdles. and 17 pls.		6,858
			157,974
Rice, ... to Great Britain		63 pls.	126
For. Europe		896 ..	1,683
N. America		3,567 ..	6,258
Mauritius, &c.		1,431 ..	2,633
Arabia		298 ..	522
China		38,823 ..	59,408
Rhio		12,700 ..	12,911
Cochin China		600 ..	675
Sumatra		1,035 ..	1,253
E. S. Penins		1,285 ..	1,832
W. S. Penins.		149 ..	160
Celebes		740 ..	975
Borneo		5,846 ..	7,614
N. Islands, &c.....		9,186 ..	11,902
		76,619 ..	107,952
Sago ..... to Great Britain		20,522 pls.	35,891
For. Europe		853 ..	2,084
N. America		217 ..	396
Mauritius, &c.		704 ..	1,271
Calcutta		1,701 ..	3,142
Madras		873 ..	1,296
Bombay		389 ..	650
Arabia		21 ..	38
Manilla		489 ..	245
China		1,596 ..	3,186
Java		601 ..	1,048
Rhio		553 ..	381
Siam		50 ..	100

				Sp. drs.
Sago, (*continued.*)				
	to Borneo	40	pls.	20
	N. Islands, &c	155	..	235
		28,764	..	49,983
Salt, ...	to Java	400	pls.	195
	Rhio	2,335	..	1,175
	Sumatra	10,569	..	5,915
	E. S. Penins.....	587	..	336
	W. S. Penins.	2,467	..	1,268
	Borneo	3,575	..	1,894
	N. Islands, &c	2,711	..	1,294
		22,644	..	12,077
Saltpetre, ..	to Manilla	102	pls.	641
	Java	607	..	4,449
	Cochin China	30	..	217
	Sumatra	19	..	107
	Borneo	25	..	200
	Bally	23	..	149
	N. Islands, &c	20	..	180
		826	..	5,943
Seaweed, ...	to China	3,800	pls.	16,100
Segars, ...	to Great Britain....	268,000	in No.	1,516
	For. Europe	812,000	..	2,386
	N. America	115,000	..	636
	N. S. Wales, &c..	1,856,000	..	11,272
	Calcutta	5,286,000	..	29,550
	Madras	874,000	..	5,187
	Bombay	966,000	..	5,441
	Ceylon	125,000	..	812
	Java	4,969,000	.	27,112

			Sp. drs.
Segars, (*continued.*)			
to Borneo	10,000	in No.	50
N. Islands, &c...	269,000	..	1,518
	15,550,000	..	85,480
Spices,.....to Great Britain, 1 box and 71¼ pls., mace, 233½ pls. and 1 box nutmegs, 51 kegs nutmegs and mace, 32½ pls. wild nutmegs, 8½ pls. cloves, valued			34,939
N. America, 98 pls. wild and 11 pls. 38 ctys. of plantation nutmegs			2,400
Calcutta, 360 ctys. mace, 47 pls. 44 ctys. nutmegs, and 4 pls. cloves.....			6,333
Madras, 4¾ pls. mace			665
Bombay, 87 bottles pounded nutmegs, 32 pls. 65 ctys. cloves, 32 pls. 6 ctys mace, 135 pls. 35 ctys. nutmegs			17,051
Arabia, 50 ctys. mace, and 19,000 nutmegs			120
China, 241 pls. 76 ctys. cloves, 432 ctys. nutmegs, and 60 ctys. mace			11,314
			72,822
Spelter, ... to Rhio	161	pls.	1,230
Cochin China.....	278	..	1,528
	439	..	2,758
Sticlac, ... to Great Britain	4½	pls.	66
China.....	4	..	88
Java.....	244	..	3,758
Rhio.....	3	..	41
Sumatra	108	..	2,127
Celebes, &c.....	63	..	1,312

			Sp. drs.
Sticlac, (*continued.*)			
	to Borneo.....	23½ pls.	473
	N. Islands, &c....	38½ ..	608
		488½ ..	8,473
Sugar,.....to Great Britain		11,348 pls.	62,406
	For. Europe	2,128 ..	15,942
	N. America.....	8,104 ..	38,184
	Mauritius	1,152 ..	6,425
	Madras	14 ..	24
	Bombay	5,053 ..	30,489
	Arabia	1,002 ..	5,885
	Ceylon	226 ..	1,358
	Sumatra.....	136 ..	445
	W. S. Penins.....	12 ..	72
	Celebes, &c.....	15 ..	90
	Borneo	37 ..	222
	N. Islands, &c....	143 ..	865
		29,370 ..	162,407
Sugar Candy,—			
	to N. America	9 pls.	117
	Mauritius, &c.....	47 ..	639
	Calcutta.....	64 ..	795
	Madras	36 ..	376
	Arabia	10 ..	120
	Sumatra	1 ..	11
	Borneo.....	17 ..	251
		184 ..	2,309
Tea.....to Great Britain, 569			
	boxes and	1,201 pls.	44,376
	For. Europe.....	0¼ ..	15
	N. America.....	33 ..	1,634
	Mauritius, &c.....	105 ..	2,360
	Calcutta, 2 bxs. and	75 ..	4,510

				Sp. drs.
Tea, (*continu.*)	to Madras	2	pls.	60
	Bombay 4 bxs. and	—	..	40
	Java, 1500 do. do.	114	..	14,310
	Rhio, 27 do.....	—	..	819
	Cochin China, 121 boxes	—	..	848
	Sumatra, 42 boxes.	25	..	650
	Borneo, 282 do..	1¼	..	1,602
	N. Islands, &c. 52 boxes.....	—	..	274
		1,556¼	..	71,498
Tin	to Great Britain.....	6,707	pls.	101,204
	For. Europe	1,601	..	23,319
	N. America	2,931	..	43,751
	Mauritius, &c.	798	..	12,570
	Calcutta.....	4,448	..	69,045
	Madras	3	..	52
	Bombay.....	2,060	..	31,015
	Arabia.....	456	..	6,779
	Manilla.....	47	..	731
	China	7,652	..	117,386
	Java	250	..	4,000
	Rhio	50	..	723
	Sumatra.....	8	..	120
	Celebes.....	2	..	31
	Borneo	12	..	180
		27,025	..	410,906
Tobacco....	to Mauritius, &c.....	55	pls.	1,100
	Calcutta.....	43	..	172
	Java, 121 bsks. 102 chests and.....	18	..	4,829
	Rhio	1	..	20
	Cochin China	110	..	1,100

			Sp. drs.
Tobacco, (*continued.*)			
to Sumatra, 943 bsks. and	12½ pls.		1,574
E. S. Penins. 6,050 bsks. and	29 ..		25,599
W. S. Penins. 26 cor. 66 bsks. and	1 ..		4,435
Celebes, &c., 38 bsks. and	377 ..		7,569
Borneo, 259 bsks. and	43 ..		1,796
N. Islands, &c. 290 bsks. and	104 ..		2,500
			50,694
Tortoiseshell to Great Britain	227 pls.		125,101
For. Europe	— .	28 ctys.	256
N. America.....	8 ..	28 ..	6,784
China	20 ..	44 ..	12,684
	256 ..		144,825
Wheat, ... to Mauritius, &c.....	4,610 bags		11,017
Java	4,877 ..		11,749
Siam	2 ..		6
Sumatra.....	199 ..		462
N. Islands, &c	98 ..		236
	9,786 ..		23,470
Wines,.....to Great Britain, 240. gals. 9 doz. 1 pipe..			780
Mauritius, &c. 167 doz.			603
Calcutta, 160 dozs. and 375 gallons			805
Bombay, 23 do. and 162 do.			272
Manilla, 152 do.			1,098
China, 28 do.			456
Java, 3 do. and 2 hhds.			155

Wines, (*continued.*)		Sp. drs.
to Cochin China, 14 dozs.		68
Borneo, 100 dozs		100
		4,337
Wood Garro, to Bombay	29 pls.	3,360
Arabia	27 ..	4,710
China	115 ..	4,680
N. Islands, &c	40 bxs.	400
	171 pls. and 40 boxs.	13,150
Wood Sandal,—		
to Calcutta	61 pls.	498
China	1,046 ..	11,143
	1,107 ..	11,641
Wood Booko,—		
to Sumatra	10 pls.	20
Wood Lakkah,—		
to China	3,400 pls.	10,800
Rhio	40 ..	140
Siam	352 ..	938
	3,792 ..	11,878
Wood Sapan, —		
to Great Britain	2,058 pls.	4,262
For. Europe	172 ..	331
Calcutta	8,888 ..	18,829
Madras	3 ..	7
Bombay	314 ..	628
Arabia	256 ..	387
Cochin China	160 ..	384
	11,851 ..	24,828

		Sp. Drs.
Woollens....	to Calcutta, 41 ps. and 468 yards.....	363
	Madras, 3 ps.	24
	Manilla, 378 ps. and 2,000 yards.....	14,620
	China, 358 do. and 12,096 do.	25,064
	Java, 18 do.....	335
	Siam, 644 do.....	5,085
	C. China, 2,634 ps. & 25 ps. ladies cloth	28,534
	Sumatra, 68 do. and 230 yds.	2,271
	E. S. Penins., 10 ps.	200
	W. S. Penins., 4 do.	52
	Celebes, &c., 770 do.	7,547
	Borneo, 83 do.	1,616
	Bally, 51 do.	1,574
	N. Islands, &c. 3 do. & 273¾ yards.....	302
		87,587
Spirits, Europe, —		
	to Mauritius, &c. brandy, 2,020 gals., rum 600 gals	1,218
	Calcutta, 4,279 cases 406 gals. gin	17,992
	Madras, 542 cases gin.....	2,168
	Bombay, 205 do. and 2 doz. liqueurs	860
	Manilla, 128 do. and 800 gallons brandy	1,584
	China, 8 dozen liqueurs and 330 gallons brandy	370
	Java, 1 case liqueurs and 6 doz. brandy.	36
	Siam, 100 doz. gin	100
	Cochin China, 12 doz. liqueurs.....	84
	Sumatra, valued	120
	Borneo, 2 casks	120
	N. Islands, &c. 946 cases gin	1,801
		26,453

	Sp. drs.
Spirits, Asiatic, —	
to For. Europe, 2,325 gals	558
Siam, 145 dozs	60
	618
Europe Sundries,—	
Great Britain, valued	83
Foreign Europe	5,329
Mauritius, &c.	3,216
Calcutta	4,712
Madras	1,794
Bombay	1,200
Ceylon	519
Manilla	4,831
China	2,435
Java	9,231
Rhio	190
Siam	1,820
Cochin China	3,267
Sumatra	167
W. S. Peninsula	20
Borneo	85
N. Islands, &c	247
	39,146
India Sundries, —	
to Great Britain	3,106
N. America	255
Mauritius, &c.	12
Calcutta	2,084
Madras	241
Bombay	672
Manilla	96
China	1,788
Java	7,308

India Sundries, (*continued.*)	Sp. drs.
to Rhio	197
Siam	820
Sumatra	889
East Side Peninsula	941
Celebes, &c.	143
Borneo	201
Bally	50
Neighbouring Islands	78
	18,881

China Sundries,—	
to Great Britain	25,564
North America	323
Mauritius, &c.	776
Calcutta	870
Madras	748
Bombay	95
China	120
Java	70,970
Rhio	494
Siam	1,130
Cochin China	361
Sumatra	8,995
E. S. Penins.	110
W. S. Penins.	9
Celebes, &c.	3,556
Borneo	2,309
Bally	495
Neighbouring Islands	1,695
	118,620

Java Sundries,—	
to Great Britain	7,982
North America	506
Mauritius, &c.	102

Java Sundries, (*continued.*)	Sp. drs.
Calcutta	8,402
Madras	20
Bombay	1,169
Arabia	800
China	7,785
Java	1,102
Rhio	438
Sumatra	6
Borneo	584
N. Islands	137
	29,033

Straits Sundries, —	
to Great Britain	5,943
Foreign Europe	675
Mauritius, &c.	1,727
Calcutta	60
Madras	165
Manilla	37,150
Java	4,935
Rhio	1,370
Sumatra	806
E. S. Penins.	69
W. S. Penins.	70
Celebes	125
Borneo	100
Bally	167
N. Islands, &c.	389
	53,751

Eastern Sundries,	
to Great Britain	59,586
Foreign Europe	327
North America	1,466
Mauritius, &c.	8,739

Eastern Sundries, (*continued.*)	Sp. Drs.
Calcutta	5,721
Madras	2,143
Bombay	2,232
Manilla	860
China	13,531
Java	838
Rhio	365
Siam	1,540
C. China	540
Sumatra	180
W. S. Penins.	214
Borneo	1,922
Bally	76
N. Islands, &c.	243
	100,523
American Sundries,—	
to Mauritius, &c.	926
Calcutta	3,916
Java	2,052
	6,894
Spanish Dollars,—	
to Calcutta	70,189
Madras	99,758
Bombay	30,437
Arabia	41,000
China	21,864
Java	7,024
Rhio	84,882
Siam	400
Cochin China	9,500
Sumatra	26,906
E. S. Penins.	1,570
W. S. Penins.	12,838
Celebes, &c.	8,792

Spanish Dollars, (*continued.*)		Sp. Drs.
	Borneo	9,389
	Bally	200
	N. Islands, &c.	17,110
		441,859
Sicca Rupees, to Calcutta		5,092
	Madras, 548 in No.	311
		5,403
Bombay Rupees, to Bombay		371
Java Rupees, to Calcutta		1,943
	Madras	125
	Java	2,000
	Rhio	400
	Sumatra	1,800
	Celebes, &c.	4,000
	Borneo	4,840
		15,108
Sycee Silver, to Calcutta		650
Cowries, ... to Great Britain		1,086
	Calcutta	2,989
	Siam	100
		4,175
Copper Coins, to Celebes, &c.	valued at	12,076
	Borneo	100
	Bally	13,339
	N. Islands, &c.	300
		25,815
Gold Coins, to Bombay, 20		92

Ticals .. ... to Calcutta		25,004
Madras		17,000
Bombay		5,896
		47,900
Sovereigns, to Great Britain, 20 in No.....		95
Calcutta		475
		570
Gold Mohurs, to Calcutta		93
Doubloons, to Bombay.....		62

Statement of the Import trade between Singapore, and P. W. Island, and Malacca, for the year ending 30th April, 1837.

P. W. ISLAND.

	Sp. Drs.
Arms, 5 fowling pieces	30
Anchors, 30 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs., chain cables	243
Betel-nut, 4,148 piculs	7,981
Bees' wax, 210 piculs.....	4,822
Benjamin, 472 piculs	18,192
Beche-de-mer, 210 piculs	1,520
Birds' nests, 3 piculs	180
Birds' feathers, 6000 in No.	660
Brassware, 1 box and 20 ctys.	90
Coffee, 1,110 piculs and 87 ctys.	10,739
Copperware, 2 piculs	50
Cordage, 21½ piculs.....	129
Cassia 101½ piculs	1,066
Dholl, 69 piculs	169
Earthenware, 1,400 in No.	224
Ebony, 1,203 piculs	3,513

		Sp. Drs.
Gram, 859 bags, and 140 piculs		2,020
Ghee, 52 piculs		773
Gold thread, (China,) 60 boxes		285
Glassware, 100 doz. and 1 box		70
Gunpowder, 14½ piculs		500
Gunnies, 250 in No.		25
Hides, 154 piculs		709
Ivory, 6 piculs, 55 ctys.		730
Iron, 220 piculs		660
Ironware and mongery	valued at	485
Indigo, 8 piculs		72
Lead, 100 piculs		500
Opium, 21 chests, and 39 balls		16,117
Oils, 98 piculs		850
Pepper, 4,900 piculs		32,885
Paddy, 13 piculs		26
Piece goods, Malay, 48 corges		1,096
Ditto	India, 950 corges & 13 pieces	108,719
Ditto	China, 88 pieces	176
Ditto	British, 465 ps. 7,535 yds. and 150 dozens	3,902
Ditto	Foreign Europe, 40 pieces	320
Rice, 19,268 piculs		24,743
Ratans, 293 piculs, and 1,300 bndls.		900
Segars, 122,250 in No. (Madras.)		122
Sugar, 1,429 piculs		6,331
Spices, 79 piculs, 63 ctys., and 14 bags cloves; 31½ piculs and 2 boxes mace, and 101 piculs, 65 ctys., and 1 box nutmegs		22,662
Spelter, 56 piculs		364
Saltpetre, 591 piculs		3,491
Sticlac, 110 piculs		2,000
Tobacco, 240 piculs, 60 ctys., and 15 bales		1,657
Tin, 5,714 piculs		73,386
Tea, 12½ piculs, and 20 boxes		420

	Sp. Drs.
Tortoiseshell, 1 picul, 62 ctys.	1,234
Wheat, 3,316 bags, and 75 piculs	8,695
Wood, Garro, 2 piculs	20
Ditto, Lakka, 180 do.	360
Ditto, Sandal, 151 piculs	379
Java Sundries	38
Europe ditto	654
India ditto	4,506
China ditto	647
Straits ditto	6,692
Eastern ditto	185
Cowries, 73 piculs	160
Spanish dollars	46,002
Total Imports from Pinang	426,176

MALACCA.

Arms, 100 muskets	340
Beer, 15 dozens	39
Bees'-wax, 70 piculs	1,609
Betel-nut, 473 piculs	1,595
Brassware, 1 picul	52
Coffee, 1,210 piculs	11,723
Copper sheathing, 10 piculs	450
Ebony, 60 piculs	120
Gram, 96 piculs	144
Ghee, 1 picul	14
Hides, 116 piculs	477
Ivory, 260 ctys.	204
Iron-ware and mongery, 60 gunlocks, and 40 piculs nails	145
Nankeens, 40 corges	550
Oils, 8 dozens	215
Opium, 2 chests	1,280

	Sp. drs.
Piece-goods, Malay, 146 cor., and 46 cor. handkerchiefs	3,145
Piece-goods, India, 1,904 corges	25,465
British, 354 pieces	765
Pepper, 912½ piculs	5,850
Ratans, 2,853 piculs	4,535
Raw silk, 1 chest	330
Rice, 2,260 piculs	3,519
Sago, 1,200 bundles	100
Sugar, 10 piculs	15
Spices, 1½ piculs cloves	52
Steel, 5 piculs	40
Tea, 16 boxes	86
Tin, 2,411½ piculs	35,041
Tobacco, 150 ctys.	20
Wood, Garro, 8 piculs	810
Ditto, Lakka, 547 do.	1,219
Wheat, 150 bags	310
Wines, 6 dozens and 4 cases	48
Java Sundries	10
Europe ditto	30
China ditto	384
India ditto	410
Straits ditto	15,175
Spanish dollars	41,882
Java rupees	2,772
Total Imports from Malacca	160,970

Statement of the Export trade between Singapore, and P. W. Island, and Malacca, for the year ending 30th April, 1836.

P. W. ISLAND.

	Sp. drs.
Alum, 110 piculs	220
Arms, 24 fowling-pieces, 3,465 muskets, 12 iron guns, 54 swords, 72 rifles, 1 brass cannon	14,536
Beer, 32 casks, and 120 dozens	1,305
Beche de Mer, 15 piculs	225
Bees'-wax, 20 piculs	440
Betel-nut, 16 piculs	38
Benjamin, 227 do.	5,972
Birds'-nests, 530 ctys.	9,875
Brassware, 12 piculs, 45 ctys.	554
Camphor, China, 40 piculs	1,400
Ditto, Malay, 70 catties	980
Coffee, 27 piculs	249
Copperware, 47 piculs	730
Copper nails and sheathing, 31¼ piculs	1,069
Copper, Japan, 60 piculs	1,710
Canvass, 23 pieces	161
Cotton-twist, 36 piculs, and 6 bales	3,278
Cotton, 78 piculs, and 10 bales	840
Chinaware ..... valued at	14,851
Cordage, 85 piculs	590
Dholl, 15 piculs	30
Earthenware, 3,249 dozen, 1 cask, 1 basket	1,370
Gambier, 1,300 piculs	2,220
Ghee, 3½ piculs	70
Gold-thread, Europe, 15 lbs. and 25 ctys.	2,280
Ditto China, 399 boxes, 67 pkges.	3,063
Glassware, 444 doz., 2 cases, and 25 pairs, 7 cases lamps	991

	Sp. drs.
Gold-dust, 210 buncals	5,310
Gunpowder, 85 pls., 62 ctys., 50 half, and 592 qr. barrels	4,410
Gram, 46 bags	56
Hides, 20 piculs	40
Indigo, 302 do.	1,779
Iron, 653 pls. Swedish, 2,937 pls., and 1,050 pls. nails, 79 pls. steel	13,792
Iron-ware and mongery, 198 pls. nails, 500 gunlocks, 14,850 pairs, and 3,173 sets pans, 24 hinges	7,845
Lead, 35 piculs	240
Nankeens, 20 corges	140
Oil, 27 pls. dammer oil, 12 jars and 5 tins linseed oil, 287 pls. cocoa-nut oil, 270 gallons paint oil	2,402
Opium, 38 chests, 5 balls	22,825
Paints, 255 kegs	610
Piece-goods, British, 4,463 dozen and 227 corges, 51,921 ps., 99,181 yards	130,958
Ditto, Foreign Europe, 1,292 piculs	6,158
Ditto, India, 1,283 corges	11,482
Ditto, China, 1 case silks, 5 rolls satin	560
Ditto, Malay, 2,950 corges	50,661
Raw silk, 7 chests	2,190
Rice, 417 piculs	530
Sago, 1,453 pls. and three boxes	2,482
Salt, 14,485 piculs	6,647
Segars, 198 boxes	1,306
Spirits, Europe, 395 gallons and 20 dozen brandy, 319 cases gin	1,597
Ditto, Asiatic, 3,375 gallons arrack	801
Sticlac, 1,011 piculs	17,877
Sugar, 716 piculs	4,645
Sugar-candy, 163 piculs	1,250
Spices, 1½ pls. wild nutmegs	27

	Sp. drs.
Tea, 118 piculs, and 571 boxes	5,325
Tobacco, 595 pls. Bally, 1,720 bsks. Java, 1 box, 207 pls., and 371 baskets China.	33,070
Tortoiseshell, 10 ctys.	100
Wheat, 150 bags	225
Wines .....valued at	1,794
Woollens, 31 ps. and 100 yards striped lists	2,152
Wood, Garro, 3 piculs	450
Ditto, Sandal 50 ctys.	6
Spelter, 1 picul	10
Europe Sundries	4,290
India ditto	1,295
China ditto	7,339
Java ditto	5,128
Eastern ditto	3,267
Straits ditto	180
Spanish dollars	121,550
Java rupees	792
Total Exports to Pinang, Sp. drs.	554,640

MALACCA.

	Sp. drs.
Arms, 378 muskets	1,223
Beer, 23 casks and 102 dozen	1,068
Brass-ware, 46 locks	16
Copper-ware, 2 piculs	50
Copper nails and sheathing, 37 piculs	1,375
Cotton-twist, 5 piculs	145
Cotton, 2 piculs and 37 bales	823
China-ware .....valued at	185
Earthen-ware ..... do.	565
Gambier, 85 piculs	160
Gold-thread, China, 80 boxes	560
Glass-ware, 42 dozen	124

	Sp. drs.
Gold-dust, 21 ctys.	10,500
Gunpowder, 14 pls. 10 kegs, 100 canisters	448
Gram, 20 bags	50
Indigo, 7 piculs	21
Iron, 867 pls., 10 pls. Swedish, 25 pls. nails	2,504
Iron and mongery, 26 sets, and 220 pans	512
Nankeens, 14 corges	131
Oil, 1,046 piculs, and 20 piculs paint oil	6,006
Opium, 23 chests, 32 balls	15,182
Paints, 4 kegs, white	28
Piece-goods, British, 6,047 ps. and 8,920 handkerchiefs	9,231
Ditto, Foreign Europe, 30 pieces	195
Ditto, India, 567½ corges	12,167
Ditto, China, 1 case and 6 pieces	111
Ditto, Malay, 1,015 corges	22,479
Ratans, 100 bndls.	10
Raw Silk, 4 chests	1,360
Rice, 2,449 piculs	3,682
Sago, 1,028 piculs	354
Salt, 7,500 piculs	3,719
Saltpetre, 8¼ piculs	87
Segars, 116,000 in No.	30
Spirits, Europe, 34 cases gin; 510 galls. 3 kegs brandy	724
Ditto Asiatic, 11,700 galls. 111 casks	4,964
Sticlac, 9 piculs	135
Sugar, 463 piculs	2,921
Sugar Candy, 11 pls., 18 tubs, and 8 basks.	304
Tea, 331 boxes, 27 piculs	2,313
Tin, 93 piculs	564
Tobacco, 21 basks., 42¼ pls. (China); 1,360 basks., and 10 pls. Java; 2 pls. Siam; 3 pls. Bally	9,639
Wheat, 68 bags	181
Wines ..... valued	407

	Sp. drs.
Woollens, 15 piculs, and 20 yards	372
Wood, Garro, 1½ piculs	150
Europe, Sundries, ...	1,476
India, Ditto	1,228
China, Ditto	3,697
Java, Ditto	3,412
Eastern, Ditto	1,805
Straits, Ditto	774
Spanish Dollars	38,200
Copper Coins, ...	500
Total Exports to Malacca, Sp. Drs.	168,867

The currency in which commercial transactions are calculated is Spanish dollars, divided into cents. Most sales can be effected for payment in cash. Returns for consignments can generally be made in bills, specie, or gold dust, when produce is not preferred. Private bills on London, at six months' sight, average 4*s.* 6*d.* or 4*s.* 7*d.* per dollar. On Calcutta, thirty days' sight, from 205 or 206 sicca rupees per 100 dollars. On Batavia, thirty days sight, guilders 268 per 100 dollars, and on China at par. On Madras, Madras rupees 222 or 224 per 100 dollars.

What with the advantage of trade-winds, monsoons, &c. on the one hand, and with the improvements in navigation, (thanks to Horsburgh's invaluable charts) in our knowledge of the hidden dangers of the seas on the other, the voyage to

and from India is now performed with great safety. The rates of insurance are therefore comparatively low. On goods to Europe, not north of Great Britain, to America, and New South Wales, they do not exceed three per cent.; to countries north of Great Britain, and to the Persian Gulph they are 3½. To the Cape of Good Hope, St. Helena, Ceylon, Bourbon, Bencoolen, and Padang (touching at Batavia), 2½ per cent. To Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Mauritius, Rangoon, Amherst Town, and Moulmein, 2 per cent.—to the Red Sea 4—to China, Java, and Borneo Proper, 1¼—to Manilla, 1½—to Malacca, ½, and to Pinang, 1. The premium on treasure is one-sixth less than the above rates. The freights to London and Liverpool, in August 1836, were as follows:—

Tin and antimony ore 2*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* per 20 cwt.
Sugar in bags, 4*l.* per 20 cwt.
Sago in ditto, 3*l.* per do.
Hides in bulk, 5*l.* to 5*l.* 10*s.* per do.
Sapan-wood, in bulk, 3*l.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per do.
Gambier, in baskets, 7*l.* per do.
Coffee, in bags, 4*l.* to 4*l.* 10*s.* per 18 cwt.
Pepper, do. 5*l.* to 5*l.* 5*s.* per 16 cwt.
Sago in boxes, 4*l.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* per 50 cubit feet.
Cassia, 8*s.* to 9*s.* per half picul box.
Other measurement, 5*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* per 50 feet.
Treasure, one per cent.

Few of the European merchants at Singapore transact business on their own account, being mostly agents for European houses. The ports principally traded with are those of London, Liverpool, Hamburgh, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Bourdeaux, Canton, Calcutta, Batavia, Bombay, and Madras.

Preparatory to a brief view of the trade, it is necessary to remind the reader, that Singapore is a free port, that it produces but little as yet for exportation, and that it is scarcely more than a mart, or entrepôt for transhipment of the produce and merchandise of Asia, Europe, and America: the imports, with the exception of those for local consumption, forming the exports. Its great commerce is with China, and excluding transhipments, is principally conducted by a number of junks, which annually quit the ports of China with the N.E. monsoon about January; and arriving at Singapore in from twenty to forty days, return with the S.W. monsoon, which blows from April to October. They bring cargoes of tea, nankins, piece goods, sugar-candy, china and copper ware, cassia, gold and silver thread, a number of Chinese emigrants, and a variety of articles for their consumption. The country ships import tobacco, nankin, raw silk, cassia, and specie. The exports to China are British cloths, both cotton and

woollen, opium, betel-nut, ebony, edible birds'-nests, beche-de-mer, sea-weed, cotton, tin, pepper, &c.

Next in value to the trade with China stands that with the Indian presidencies of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and with the island of Ceylon, whence the imports are principally opium, rice, Indian piece-goods, saltpetre, cotton, ebony, cordage, arrack, &c. in exchange for tin, gold-dust, nankin, China-ware, pepper, gambier (catechu), spices, and Malayan and Chinese piece goods.

The imports from Great Britain are very considerable: woollens, piece-goods, cotton twist, iron, arms, gunpowder, wines, and a great variety of manufactured articles. The cloths of Great Britain have considerably lessened the sale of the produce of the Indian looms, which was formerly in great demand. Of late years it is said that Indian cloths have met with better sales, in consequence of the Natives beginning to find out that they are far more durable than the English. The exports to Great Britain are antimony, tin, tea, gold-dust, cassia, coffee, catechu, sugar, raw silk, benjamin (benzoin), bees'-wax, hides, ivory, tortoise-shell, mother of pearl shell, and a large proportion of the various produce of China, Siam, Cochin-China, Cambodia, the Malay Peninsula, and the Archipelago, under the head of "sundries."

The trade with Java comes next in value. The staple articles of import, from this large and fertile island, are European piece-goods (with which the Batavian market is frequently overstocked), beche-de-mer, edible birds'-nests, gold-dust, indigo, rice, ratans, spices, benjamin, brass and copper-ware, Banca tin, tobacco, copper, &c. from Japan, sandal-wood, arrack, and other spirits. The exports to Java are India, China, and Europe piece-goods to a large extent, nankin, iron, opium, raw silk, wheat, china and iron-ware, cordage, gunnies, and saltpetre.

After Java ranks the Malayan Peninsula. The imports from its eastern coast are by far the most considerable. The value of gold-dust shipped thence, in the year 1835–6, alone amounted to 143,840 Spanish dollars, and that from the western coast to 1,200 dollars. The other imports are tin, black and white pepper, silk and cotton Malay cloths, sugar and ratans; in return for rice, tobacco, opium, salt, salt fish, arms, iron tools and implements of agriculture, European, Indian, and Malayan piece-goods, cotton twist, &c. The chief ports on the east coast are Pahang, Tringanu, Kalantan, and Sangora. The gold-dust brought from Pahang is extremely pure, and fetches the high price of from 28 to 28½ Spanish dollars the bunkal. The cloths, tin, and pepper, come prin-

cipally from Tringanu and Kalantan, as well as a fair proportion of gold-dust. The imports from the west coast are principally tin from Lingie, Sungie-ujong, the states in the interior of Malacca, Lukut, Salangore, and Perak; bees'-wax, elephants' teeth, ebony, hides, ratans, sago, Lakka wood, specie (dollars), vegetables, fruits, cattle and poultry from Johore, Pontian, Umbai, Battu Pahat, Muar, Cassang, Sungie Baru, &c. The exports to these places are of the same nature as those to the eastern coast. The trade is carried on almost entirely by native craft, from one to eight coyans burthen, and small open boats called Sampan Pucats. The imports from the east coast of the Peninsula alone average more than 300,000 Spanish dollars annually, and the exports about the same sum.

Siam stands next on the list. The imports from this country have averaged, for the last few years, upwards of 200,000 Spanish dollars annually, and the exports a sum little less. The former consist of rice, sugar, ivory, oil, salt, sticlac, sugar-candy, iron pans and sapan wood. The trade is carried on chiefly by junks, leaving Bankok annually with the N.E. monsoon. These vessels are commonly the property of, and navigated by Chinese settlers in Siam. They return with the S.W. monsoon; taking back British and Indian

piece-goods, opium, woollen cloths, cotton twist, bees'-wax, betel-nut, ebony, steel, iron, lead, ratans, and a quantity of "sundries."

The trade with Cochin-China and Cambodia is conducted like that with Siam, though on a smaller scale. The articles of export and import are much alike. The trade has latterly suffered some depression, owing, probably, to the rivalry of the Americans, who have recently been pushing their commercial interests in this quarter, and in Siam, and to the disturbed state of the country. The principal ports are those of Anam, Kang-Kao, and Hailam. The number of junks that imported from these places in 1832–3 was seventeen, and amount of tonnage 998 tons.

YEARS.	NO. OF JUNKS.	TONNAGE.
In 1833-4	49	3,010
1834-5	37	2,887
1835-6	35	2,820

A most extensive and lucrative commerce is carried on with the countless islands of the Indian Archipelago. The exports and imports from Borneo and Celebes alone amount to upwards of 800,000 Sp. dollars annually. This trade is principally carried on by the Bugis of Waju, in Celebes, an enterprising and commercial race, who may be justly called the Phœnicians of this

part of the globe. Their singularly shaped prahus arrive annually at Singapore during the prevalence of the eastern monsoon, bringing large quantities of gold-dust, ebony, ivory, camphor, tin, mother of pearl shells, pearls, benjamin, tortoise-shell, birds' plumes, a few diamonds from Borneo, birds of Paradise, bees' wax, beche-de-mer, coffee, kayu putih, camphor, spice, Macassar and other oils, pepper, paddy, piece-goods, rice, edible birds' nests, spices, tobacco, lignum-aloes, sandal, Kayu Baku, Lakka, and sapan woods, and a considerable quantity of antimony from Borneo. The exports are principally British, Indian and Malayan piece-goods, woollens, rice, iron, brass, earthen and China ware, opium, salt, raw silk, tobacco, gunpowder, cotton twist, catechu, iron, steel, iron tools, and implements of agriculture.

From Continental Europe, the imports are chiefly wines, spirits, liqueurs, beer, British and French piece-goods, fire-arms, iron, steel, glass-ware, provisions, salt, and "sundries," in return for Asiatic produce and cash.

A little ebony and specie (dollars) are imported from the Mauritius in return for coffee, bees' wax, and canvass, which are likewise exported to the Cape and to New South Wales; also cassia, gold-dust, opium, ratans, cordage, dholl, gram, and catechu or gambier.

One or two square-rigged vessels arrive annually from Arabia, bringing tortoise-shell, salt, gold thread, sandal-wood, oil, and "sundries," and taking back benjamin, gold-dust, long pepper, Indian piece-goods: a small quantity of sago and spices, and large investments of sugar, tin, sapan-wood, spices, and lignum aloes.

From 1825 to 1835, vessels from the United States did not venture to trade openly with Singapore, on account of the seizure of one of their vessels there, the Governor Endicott, by the commander of His Majesty's ship Larne. It has, however, been since decided that America is at perfect liberty to trade with Singapore on the same footing as other nations. The imports are principally specie (Spanish dollars), piece-goods, provisions, and "sundries," in return for tin, sugar, coffee, pepper, rice, tortoise-shell, gunnies, cassia, opium, spices, and a small quantity of betel-nut, catechu, tea, antimony, ratans, &c.

Nearly all the betel-nut, a great proportion of benzoin, or the benjamin of commerce, coffee, and gold-dust, imported into Singapore are brought from Sumatra. The betel-nut is chiefly procured from the Pedir coast on the northern and eastern side of this large island. The benjamin is the inspissated juice of a tree botanically described by Dryander, (Phil. Trans. xxvii. 307.) It

exudes in the form of a whitish gum, from incisions made into the bark. The tree grows most abundantly in that part of the island, inhabited by the Battak tribes. The best pieces of the benjamin are selected for the European market, the remainder is sent to Arabia, China, and Hindostan, where it is used as incense. A large quantity of cotton, bees'-wax, ratans, tortoise-shell, sago, a small quantity of pepper, nutmegs, and specie are also imported. Singapore, in return for these articles, exports to Sumatra a large quantity of European, Indian, and Malayan piece-goods, opium, raw silk, woollens, salt, tobacco, fire-arms, steel, copper sheathing, alum, china, and ironware. The commerce is carried on by native craft and country traders. The principal ports on the east side are those of Achin, Delli, Battu Bara, Langkat, Bukit Battu, Campar, Siac, Jambi, and Palembang; and on the western coast Padang, Tappanooly, and Bencoolen. The trade fell off a little in 1835–6, owing to the increase of piracy, now under suppression, and to the monopolising efforts of the Dutch, in consequence of which, but little of the excellent camphor and cassia of Sumatra now find their way to Singapore.

From the neighbouring Dutch port of Rhio, by far the greatest proportion of the gambier that is

imported into Singapore, is shipped. It is not the produce of the small island of Rhio, but of the neighbouring one of Bintan. It imports tin, rice, hides, a little sugar, tobacco, pepper, ivory, bees'-wax, and coffee. The exports to Rhio are specie, European and Indian piece-goods, China-ware, fire-arms, spelter, salt, &c.

Rhio is a settlement belonging to Holland, protected by a small fort built mostly from the materials of the ruined fortress of Malacca, situate on a small island near the larger one of Bintan, about sixty miles S. E. from Singapore. This fort, though sufficiently strong to repel any attempt made upon it by the Malays, is not very defensible against European arms. The Dutch obtained possession of Rhio in 1785. Ten years afterwards it fell with Malacca into the hands of the British government, which not considering it worth holding, gave it up to the Malays. On Malacca being restored to Holland in 1818, the Dutch, apprehensive lest the British should anticipate them, hastily entered into negotiations with the Rajah Muda of Rhio for the re-occupation of the island, which was finally given up for the annual sum of 48,000 Java rupees, (increased in 1824 it is said, to 60,000) and a Dutch resident appointed. It has ever since been a Dutch settlement. The population amounts to about 24,000 souls, most

of whom are Chinese and Malays. Its revenue barely covers the expenditure. The total exports and imports in 1825, amounted to a little more than 27,000 florins.

I need not, I think, apologize for intruding this rival settlement upon the notice of my readers, farther than by shortly stating that, towards the close of 1818, the Dutch got intimation of our intentions to establish a settlement at Rhio, in consequence of the recent loss of Malacca, with the view of securing a fair participation in the lucrative trade of the Archipelago, from which we were then almost completely excluded. When the English commissioners arrived, they found they were too late, and that the Dutch, with their ancient promptitude and eagerness in matters of this nature, had succeeded in replanting themselves firmly upon Rhio. Nothing therefore was left for the commissioners but the occupation of some eligible island in the vicinity: Singapore was the island wisely selected. Thus Rhio has been the means of giving birth to a rival who has not only absorbed most of her trade, but who has totally annihilated the ambitious dreams entertained by Holland of monopolising the rich commerce of the Eastern seas. There cannot exist a stronger contrast than that presented by these two ports, the benefits of free trade on one side,

and the deleterious effects of taxation on the other. The Dutch, latterly finding their harbour almost deserted, have either taken off or reduced very materially the heavy exactions.

Singapore imports from the sister residencies, Malacca and Pinang, tin procured from the native states in their neighbourhood: pepper, coffee, piece-goods, cloves, mace, and nutmegs from Pinang. Live stock, vegetables, &c., from Malacca, and a variety of other articles of eastern produce. The exports are for the most part piece-goods, opium, tobacco, and gold dust.

The trade with the Tenasserim coast is very insignificant.

The most valuable articles of trade, are European and Indian piece-goods; the former consisting chiefly of cambrics, long cloths, chintzes, Manchester prints, madapollams, wove sarongs, and salendongs, imitation Battick and Pulicat handkerchiefs, ginghams; Turkey red cloths, Siamese dresses. Among the Indian piece-goods are curwahs, sannahs, large and small, gurrahs from Bengal, cambayas, white and blue moories, brown and blue salampores, white punjums, and red and white handkerchiefs from Madras. The total amount of European piece-goods, imported in 1835–6, in Spanish dollars, was 953,554, of Indian piece-goods, 288,400. Next in value,

ranks that pernicious drug, opium. The total value of this article imported in the year 1835–6, amounted to the enormous sum of upwards of a million of dollars. Two hundred and fifty two thousand of which was the value of the quantity exported to China, most part of the remainder went to the east coast of the peninsula, to Java, Borneo, Celebes, Cochin China, and Siam, and a considerable quantity to America. The opium trade with China is contraband. The prohibitions against it have lately been rigidly put in force, consequently the trade is now (1836) nearly at a stand. The total value annually exported from Calcutta and Bombay to the Eastward, is supposed to amount to about 3,000,000*l*. The Patna opium is the most prized of the varieties sent from India; and sells from 710 to 720 Sp. drs. Benares sells from 645 to 650 Sp. drs., and Malwa from 580 to 600 Sp. drs. Turkey opium, though disliked at first, has latterly come into greater request. A chest of Bengal opium weighs about 140lbs. avoirdupois.

Tin is the next valuable article of trade. That imported into Singapore comes from Banca, (through Java and Rhio), from the Malay Peninsula, and the neighbouring islands. The imports in 1835–6, amounted to 313,368 drs., exported principally to China, Great Britain, Calcutta, and

Bombay. The quantity exported to China, amounted to 117,386 Sp. drs.; to Great Britain, 101,204. Banca tin is most prized from its greater purity and less liability to adulteration. It sells at, from 20 to 22 Sp. drs. per picul; while that of the Straits seldom fetches more than 18 Sp. drs. Several slabs lately imported from Tringanu were cased, and on being opened, the centre was discovered to be filled with dross, dirt, and a quantity of Tringanu spelter, and lead coins.

Rice, the staple article of food in the East, ranks next both in value and importance. The imports in 1835–6, amounted to 226,295 Sp. drs., chiefly from Java, Siam, Bali, Bengal, Celebes, and Cochin China. Most part is consumed in the Straits, where the produce is very far from being adequate to the demand. The remainder is transhipped to China, the Malay islands, Rhio, &c.

The export of birds' nests to China amounts to 162,852 Sp. drs., and that of beche-de-mer to 74,773 Sp. drs. These strange articles of gourmandise are almost exclusively confined to the Chinese; who, in addition to the extravagant sums just mentioned, expend nearly double the amount in purchasing large quantities of these articles imported direct from Java, and the Sulu Archipelago.

The beche-de-mer, the tripang or sea-slug, used in the bouillis of the Chinese, is imported principally from Java, Celebes, and the isles in the vicinity of Singapore. The most considerable fisheries for this article of luxury lie between Celebes and New Guinea. The animal is of a brownish glutinous substance, from three inches to two feet in length, and is generally found adhering to coral reefs, from one to six fathoms below the surface of the water. It is brought up by divers; those lying near the surface are caught by spears. The price varies according to the quality assigned the different kinds by the Chinese, who are extremely curious in these dainties, being sometimes four, and sometimes as high as 50 Spanish dollars the picul.

The birds'-nests of commerce are the production of a species of swallow, *Hirundo esculenta*, frequenting the rocks and isles of the eastern seas. The nests resemble in shape those of the ordinary swallow, and seem to consist principally of a gluten, secreted by the bird itself, like that of the white ant. They are of two sorts, the black and the white. The latter, which is the recent nest, is by far the most esteemed, and bears the highest price; fetching from 800 to 4,000 Sp. drs. the picul; while the former, which is the old nest, soiled by the young ones, and

often intermixed with feathers, seldom sells for more than 30 to 100 Sp. drs. the picul. The Chinese, who are almost the sole purchasers of this expensive luxury, which enters largely into the soups and dishes of the wealthy, subdivide these two classes into a number of minute distinctions.

The gambier is the inspissated juice of the Nauclea Gambir,* and used largely by most of the

* The Nauclea Gambir is placed by Jussieu under the natural order Rubiaceæ; it is a shrub, attaining the height of six to eight feet, branchy; the leaves are ovate, pointed, smooth, waving, distinctly veined transversely, underneath of dark green colour, and when chewed, they have a bitter astringent taste, leaving, however, afterwards, a sweetish taste in the mouth, not unlike liquorice: the flowers are aggregate, globular, composed of numerous florets, crowded on a globular, naked receptacle; tubes of the corolla of a pinkish colour; the upper part of the corolla fine, cleft, and of a greenish yellow colour; the stamina are five in number, and short; the pistil is longer than the corolla; the flowers are destitute of fragrance; the capsules (as correctly stated by Mr. Hunter,) are stalked, oblong, incrusted, and crowned with a calyx, tapering to a point below; two-celled, two valved, the valves adhering at the apex, splitting at the sides; seeds very numerous, oblong, very small, compressed, furnished at both ends with a membranous pappus.

"From observations made at Singapore, I am induced to consider the tree as diœcious, from observing numerous trees, among which some were in full flower, of which the corolla falls off, leaving the calyx, which withers without any appearance of the ovarium becoming perfect; others were covered with immature and mature capsules, but the fertile appearance of the stigma in the specimens I collected, would cause me, in some degree, to doubt the fact of its being

nations of the East with their betel, and by the Chinese for tanning leather. It has been sub-

diœcious. I, however, mention the circumstance, for future investigation. The shrubs also, I observed at Singapore, were not climbing.

"The shrub yields the gambir, terra japonica, or catechu* of commerce, and is an extract prepared from the leaves; a catechu is also prepared in India from a species of acacia, (acatechu) which is found growing plentifully in Hindostan, on the mountain of Kahnana; and there are also two kinds said to be produced from the nut of the Areka palm, named in India, Cattacamboo and Cashcutti, and both are used by the Indian practitioners.†

"Its medicinal properties are astringent, and it is considered useful in diarrhœa and dysentery, in gleet, catarrhal affections, &c. Alkaline salts destroy its astringent powers, and metallic salts and solution of isinglass are incompatibles. The dose is usually from twelve grains to one drachm.

"The gambier shrub is propagated either by seeds or cuttings, but the latter are preferred. It was formerly cultivated to some extent at Singapore, (where I had an opportunity of observing it in November, 1830,) but the cultivation of the shrub, and preparation of the extract is now neglected; the reason assigned for which was, that the gambier can be imported cheaper from the islands in the vicinity, more especially at the Dutch settlement at Rhio; a smaller quantity, however, is grown by some of the Chinese settlers, for their own immediate consumption, but not so extensively as to form an article of commerce.

"The extract is used extensively by the natives of India, Eastern Archipelago, Cochin China, and Cambodia, as a masticatory, wrapped up with the betel.

"There are different qualities of extract; the first and best is white, brittle, and has an earthy appearance when rubbed between

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* Kate signifies a tree, and Chu, juice, in the Oriental language.

† Thompson's Dispensatory, page 120.

jected to chemical analysis, and found to contain the largest proportion of tannin of all known

the fingers, (which earthy appearance gave it the name of Terra Japonica, being supposed, at first, also to come from Japan), and is formed into very small round cakes. This is the dearest kind, and most refined, but it is not unfrequently adulterated with sago: this kind is brought in the greatest quantity from the island of Sumatra. The second quality is of a brownish yellow colour, is formed into oblong cakes, and when broken, has a light brown earthy appearance; it is also made into a solid cube form; it is sold in the bazars in small packets, each containing five or six. The third quality contains more impurities than the preceding, is formed in small circular cakes, and is sold in packages of five or six, in the bazar.

"The method employed in preparing the extract is thus correctly related by Finlayson: 'The leaves are collected three or four times a-year; they are thrown into a large caldron, the bottom of which is formed of iron, the upper part of bark, and boiled for five or six hours, until a strong decoction is obtained; the leaves are then withdrawn, and allowed to strain over the vessel, which is kept boiling for as many hours more, until the decoction is inspissated; it is then allowed to cool when the catechu subsides. The water is drawn off; a soft, soapy substance remains, which is cut into large masses; these are further divided by a knife into small cubes, about an inch square, or into still smaller pieces, which are laid in frames to dry. This catechu has more of a granular uniform appearance than that of Bengal; it is, perhaps, also less pure.'

"A gambier manufactory is usually observed near a pepper plantation, as the pepper-vine does not thrive in the soil of Singapore unless well manured: the refuse of the leaves, &c. used in the manufacture of the extract, is found excellent for the purpose of manuring the vines.

"The younger leaves of the shrub are said to produce the whitest and best gambier; the older, a brown and inferior sort. There are other species of Nauclea indigenous to Singapore, but they do not produce any extract."

astringent substances. One pound is equivalent, for tanning leather, to seven or eight of oak-bark. The Rhio gambier is often adulterated with sago, and rendered heavier by the Chinese purposely packing it in baskets lined with wet cajangs, occasioning a loss to the purchaser of about 30 per cent.

The following statement affords a view of the rapid progressive increase of commerce of Singapore from 1822 to 1835.

STATEMENT OF NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF SQUARE-RIGGED VESSELS AND NATIVE CRAFT IMPORTING INTO SINGAPORE.

	SQUARE-RIGGED.		NATIVE CRAFT.	
	Nos.	Tonnage.	Nos.	Tonnage.
1822	139	51,076	1,454	15,892
1823	166	56,740	1,519	20,193
1824	168	48,749	1,459	27,076
1825	190	58,810	1,886	32,522
1826	234	72,172	1,614	36,653
1827-28	370	101,878	2,856	45,082
1828-29	378	121,717	2,149	41,437¼
1829-30	367	117,527	1,705	37,921¼
1830-31	406	120,676	1,743	38,887
1831-32	413	124,835	1,466	32,372
1832-33	420	120,443	1,566	28,714
1833-34	475	137,298	1,599	34,927
1834-35	517	156,518	1,484	37,521

Scarcely any vessels belong to the port, consequently the tonnage of exports is nearly identical with that of imports.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF QUANTITY AND VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO SINGAPORE, FOR THE OFFICIAL YEARS 1834–35, AND 1835–36.

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.
Anchors and grapnels	....	19,640	....	14,483
Alum	20 piculs	20	20 piculs.	20
Arms	....	26,917	....	48,497
Brassware	....	4,908	....	3,516
Bees' wax	1,096 pls.	23,794	995 pls.	20,973
Benjamin	427	4,819	493¼	6,669
Birds' nests	146	94,572	211	147,815
Birds' feathers	8,123 in No.	396	680 in No. and 4 boxes	1,835
Birds of Paradise	....	..	76	48
Beer	681 doz. and 487 hhds.	16,713	157 doz. 211 cks. 5 butts	8,281
Beche-de-mer	3,735 pls.	38,827	3,823 pls.	60,093
Betel nut	8,733	17,489	13,746	25,155
Cotton	1,883	21,715	5,005 .. 350 bndls.	51,643
Cotton twist	2,287	129,746	1,050	68,257
Camphor (China.)	248	8,120	260	6,340
Ditto (Malay.)	11 .. 48 ctys.	17,761	11 .. 40 ctys.	11,206
Chinaware	....	84,266	....	95,819
Copper (Japan.)	15	450	....	
Ditto (Cochin China.)	....	..	450	9,300
Ditto (Peruvian.)	....	..	150	3,750
Copperware	....	10,810	....	2,951
Copper sheathing	196¼	6,870	490 .. 2,100 plates	20,881
Cassia	11,192	131,004	3,436	39,604
Coffee	8,294	80,474	7,939	61,756
Cordage	4,952	28,926	2,787 .. 220 coils	16,198

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.
Canvass	73,020 yards	18,078	936 bolts.	9,304
Dragons' blood	179 pls.	1,774	115 pls.	1,165
Dholl	844 mnds.	1,086	100 mds.	125
Earthenware	....	32,650	....	40,574
Ebony	6,542 pls.	14,753	14,257 pls.	32,419
Glassware	....	22,866	....	30,135
Gold thread (China.)	....	5,449	....	11,124
Ditto (Europe.)	259½ ctys. and 29½ drs. wt.	13,569	133½ ctys. and 1 box.	9,541
Gold dust	14,589½ bunkals	340,853	11,232 bnkls. and 116 reals wt.	319,677
Gram	2,368 bags	4,814	1,499 bags.	3,402
Gambier	10,549 pls.	19,609	13,624 pls.	16,786
Ghee	160	2,324	302 pls. and 40 gals.	5,051
Gunnies	1,005,570 in No.	91,320	281,150 in No.	24,745
Gunpowder	43,450 lbs. sporting; 24,000 lbs. common	23,873	99,250 lbs. common.	20,893
Hides	3,401 pls.	14,996	3,672½ pls. and 100 doz.	16,026
Ironware and mongery	....	59,699	....	32,599
Iron and steel	2,147 pls. steel, and 11,850 pls. iron	48,717	786 pls. steel, 18,242 pls. iron	53,140
Ivory	46 pls.	3,693	37 pls.	2,928
Indigo	2,240 ..	18,804	750 ..	7,382
Lead	2,379 ..	11,542	263 ..	1,315
Mother-o'-pearl shell	3,555 ..	64,237	3,222 ..	32,751
Nankeens	2,020 corges	27,500	601 boxes and 20 corges	25,835
Opium	1,153 chests, 24 balls	662,183	1,843 chests, 6 pls.	1,083,073
Oil	....	29,353	....	22,677
Piece goods (British.)	....	740,782	....	828,210
Ditto (For. Europe.)	....	30,336	....	125,344
Ditto (India.)	....	530,751	....	288,400
Ditto (China.)	...	14,978	....	19,458

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.
Piece goods (Malay.)	....	93,311	....	161,459
Pepper	17,988 pls.	108,857	20,977 pls.	136,209
Provisions	....	10,850	....	15,932
Paint	....	7,595	....	6,359
Paddy	5,298 .. pls.	3,816	6,216 pls.	5,622
Raw silk	336½ ..	128,099	161 chs., 1 bale, and 192 pls.	117,362
Rice	166,916 ..	301,091	155,363 pls.	226,295
Ratans	31,615 ..	52,846	180,802 bundles, 22,933 pls.	76,700
Salt	59,037 ..	30,890	35,613 pls.	14,339
Saltpetre	2,512 ..	20,842	1,165 ..	9,041
Segars	19,508 boxes	113,719	17,028,850 in No.	89,913
Sugar	46,390 pls.	230,934	37,027 pls.	188,685
Sugar candy	345 ..	4,503	339 ..	4,138
Seaweed	2,830 ..	8,238	2,797 ..	6,412
Spices	1,766 ..	61,059	630 ..	43,265
Sticlac	970 ..	10,565	1,271 ..	20,493
Sago	44,643 ..	28,748	1,448 and 313,691 bundles ..	21,310
Spelter	2,238 ..	10,306	1,020 pls.	5,374
Tea	....	100,245	....	62,564
Tin	20,115 ..	303,103	20,180 pls.	313,368
Tobacco	....	82,377	....	104,501
Tortoise shell	138 .. 41 cyts	130,365	111 pls.	91,663
Wines	....	41,642	....	27,564
Woollens	9,768 yards, and 5,877 pls.	87,664	5,135 pls., 8,741 yds., and 1 case	62,133
Wood (garro)	58 .... pls.	3,585	200 pls.	8,009
Ditto (booko)	400 ..	2,075	2 ..	35
Ditto (sandal)	94 ..	470	1,592 ..	20,536
Ditto (sapan)	9,174 ..	19,331	12,034 ..	23,318
Ditto (lakkah)	1,643 ..	3,416	3,904 ..	6,384
Wheat	22,152 mds. 90 barrels	32,573	12,308 mds.	15,620

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.
Spirits (Europe.)	10 cases, 8 doz. liqrs.; 15 doz. cherry brandy; 8,048 gals. brandy; 372 gals. rum; 1,167 gals. 9,319 cas. 64 doz. gin.....	58,993	8,273 cas., 15,702 gls., 504 doz.	50,943
Ditto (Asiatic.)	57,311 gals.....	14,151	27,009 galls. and 89 casks ..	8,451
Europe sundries	....	75,389	....	76,512
India Ditto.....	....	32,519	....	27,661
China Ditto.....	....	146,541	....	155,562
Java Ditto.....	....	73,850	....	28,833
Straits Ditto.....	....	2,219	....	3,897
Eastern Ditto.....	....	59,368	....	95,491
American Ditto.....	....	..	....	9,122
		6,114,971		6,130,244
Spanish dollars	....	208,506	....	415,020
Copper pice	....	20,186	....	25,072
Sycee silver	....	786	....	2,000
Java rupees	....	5,572	....	6,809
Doubloons	....	..	....	980
Madras rupees	....	75	....	230
Cowries.....	....	3,040	....	2,403
Cochin China coins.....	....	..	....	..
Silver ware	....	15,000	....	..
Tecals	....	52,200	....	35,913
Total amount in .....1834-35, Sp. Drs...		6,420,336	.....in 1835-36 Sp. Drs.	6,618,671
			in 1834-35 ..	6,420,336
			Increase in 1835-36 ..	198,335

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF QUANTITY AND VALUE OF EXPORTS FOR THE OFFICIAL YEARS 1834–35 AND 1835–36.

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. drs.
Alum	55 piculs	110	80 pls.	130
Anchors and Grapnels		4,855		7,545
Arms		862		21,220
Brassware		2,054		457
Bees-wax	1,704 pls.	40,344	1,544 pls.	35,509
Benjamin	853	11,510	666 do.	13,612
Birds' nests	183	106,776	277 do.	162,852
Birds' feathers	400 in No.	40	7,186 in No.	865
Birds of Paradise			313 in No. 1 case	722
Beer	46 hhds. and 189 dozen	2,809	18 casks and 144 dozen	761
Beche-de-mer	4,949 pls.	93,253	4,166 pls.	74,773
Betel-nut	12,477	27,128	25,948	52,158
Cotton	1,150	10,086	2,409	20,392
Cotton twist	2,164	120,387	2,049 pls. 402 bdls. and 262 cor.	135,422
Camphor, (China)	240	7,010	25 pls.	759
Do. (Malay)	9 and 27¼ ctys	20,025	10 73 ctys.	16,695
China-ware		46,721		39,043
Copper, (Japan)	10 pls.	330		
Do. (Peruvian)			38¼ pls.	884
Copper ware		11,782		6,433
Copper sheathing	113 pls.	3,375	166 pls.	5,630
Cassia	12,099	142,958	3,676	40,449
Coffee	11,419	117,299	15,621	136,497
Cordage	2,632	13,409	2,117	10,861
Canvass	242 bolts	2,382	1,691 bolts	13,191
Dragon's blood	93 pls.	3,174	58 pls.	1,303
Dholl			80 maunds.	80

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. drs.
Earthenware	....	8,480	....	8,850
Ebony	8,935 pls.	29,901	14,203 pls.	43,955
Glassware	....	8,828	...	8,456
Gold thread, (China)	....	1,507	....	5,787
Ditto (Europe)	4 ctys.	200	35 ctys. and 167 lbs.	4,554
Gold-dust	14,682 bunkals	434,539	17,307 bunkals	523,522
Gambier	31,058 pls.	68,753	37,306 pls.	54,670
Gram	....	..	422 maunds	573
Ghee	14 pls.	152	58 pls.	939
Gunnies	687,536 in No.	64,497	264,753 in No.	22,213
Gunpowder	....	1,609	....	4,751
Hides	5,256 pls.	31,543	4,471 pls. and 64 pls. cutting	16,083
Ironware and mongery	....	43,872	....	23,285
Iron and steel	13,500 pls. and 1,832 tubs steel	56,102	15,963 pls. iron, 382 pls. and 531 kegs steel	55,409
Ivory	79 pls.	7,126	63 pls.	6,649
Indigo	122 ..	11,148	....	
Lead	2,544 ..	12,405	366 pls.	2,503
Mother-o'-pearl shell	3,882 ..	71,348	3,200 ..	27,574
Nankeens	6,001 corges	34,851	4,384 corges	32,963
Opium	1,053 chs., 34 bls., and 14 pls.	693,597	1,262 ch. 16 bls. & 4 chs. Turkey	795,278
Oil	....	10,460	....	5,892
Piece-goods (British)	....	688,937	....	475,685
Ditto (For. Europe)	....	3,554	....	560
Ditto (India)	....	511,482	....	435,198
Ditto (China)	....	6,719	....	9,441
Ditto (Malay)	...	18,161	....	57,056
Pepper	....	200,105	....	236,998
Provisions	32,013 pls.	5,474	35,144 pls.	5,838
Paint	....	2,479	....	125

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. drs.
Paddy	360 pls.	414	152 pls.	420
Raw silk	369 ..	120,668	351 pls., 125 chs. and 287 bdls.	158,694
Rice	68,973 ..	126,709	76,519 pls.	107,952
Ratans	38,272 ..	82,875	36,960 .. and 1,590 bundles .	79,194
Saltpetre	3,010 ..	21,981	997 ..	5,943
Sugar-candy	41 ..	529	184 ..	2,309
Sugar	49,428 ..	304,144	29,370 ..	162,407
Segars	19,319,000 in No.	124,908	15,550,000 in No.	85,480
Salt	26,257 pls.	15,355	22,644 pls.	12,077
Sea-weed	3,924 ..	16,078	3,800 ..	16,100
Spices	....	83,655	....	72,822
Sticlac	137 pls.	2,511	437 pls.	8,473
Sago	29,514 ..	74,609	29,357 ..	49,983
Spelter	2,881 ..	12,768	439 ..	2,758
Tea	.. .	173,273	....	70,868
Tobacco	....	45,332	....	55,194
Tortoise-shell	263 pls.	156,224	256 pls.	144,825
Tin	31,526 ..	476,587	27,025 ..	410,906
Wines	....	7,349	....	4,337
Woollens	3,077 pieces and 4,109 yds.	58,223	5,057 pieces, and 15,067 yards	87,587
Wood (garro)	756 pls.	23,459	171 pls. and 40 boxes	13,150
Ditto (booko)	217 ..	1,616	10 pls.	20
Ditto (sandal)	170 ..	950	1,107 ..	11,641
Ditto (sapan)	18,603 ..	37,182	11,851 ..	24,828
Ditto (sakkah)	3,490 ..	10,310	3,792 ..	11,878
Wheat	11,114 maunds.	16,347	19,572 mounds	23,470
Spirits (Europe)	2,768 gals. brandy, 7156 cs. gin, 30 cs. liqueur, 135 gals whisky, and 2 dozen rum	37,320	4,216 gallons, 6,101 cases, 121 dozens, and 2 casks	26,453

NAMES OF ARTICLES.	QUANTITIES. 1834-35.	VALUES. Sp. Drs.	QUANTITIES. 1835-36.	VALUES. Sp. drs.
Spirits (Asiatic)	2,879 gallons	1,043	2,325 gals. and 145 dozen	618
Europe sundries	....	35,530	....	39,146
Eastern ditto	....	65,383	....	100,523
China ditto	....	66,677	....	114,120
India ditto	....	31,656	....	18,881
Java ditto	....	40,118	....	29,023
Straits ditto	....	19,269	....	53,751
American ditto	....	..	....	6,894
		6,107,560		5,675,775
Spanish dollars	....	544,323	....	441,859
Java rupees	....	19,215	....	15,108
Sicca ditto	....	4,027	....	5,043
Bombay ditto	....	60	....	371
Sovereigns	....	..	....	570
Copper coins	....	7,497	....	25,815
Madras rupees	....	582	....	
Sycee silver	....	786	....	650
Cowries	....	3,844	....	4,175
Silver coins	....	1,300	....	
Gold mohurs	....	..	....	93
Doubloons	....	..	....	62
Gold and silver coins	....	3,500	....	
Silver ware	....	730	....	
Tecals	....	41,960	....	47,900
Gold coins	....	467	....	92
Total Amount	in 1834-35, Sp. drs.	6,735,851		6,217,513
	in 1835-36, do.	6,217,513		
	Decrease in 1835-36, do.	518,338		

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF SQUARE-RIGGED VESSELS WHICH IMPORTED INTO SINGAPORE DURING THE OFFICIAL YEAR 1835–36, COMPARED WITH THE PRECEDING YEAR.

NAMES OF PLACES.	1834-35.		1835-36.		INCREASE.		DECREASE.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Great Britain	16	5,316	19	5,596	3	280	..	..
Continental Europe	3	961	3	836	..	..	..	125
America	3	894	2	709	..	..	1	185
Isle of France	1	598	1	150	..	..	..	448
Bourbon	1	120	1	286	..	166	..	..
China	62	29,351	88	40,582	26	11,231	..	..
Manilla.....	22	5,668	27	6,379	5	711	..	..
Calcutta	79	30,965	87	38,013	8	7,048	..	..
Madras and Coast	13	4,079	18	10,237	5	6,158	..	..
Bombay and Coast	45	26,770	31	15,081	..	..	14	11,689
Arabia	1	448	1	254	..	..	..	194
Moulmein.....	1	203	3	300	2	97	..	..
Ceylon	5	1,021	4	665	..	..	1	356
Malacca.....	54	6,535	53	5,812	..	..	1	723
Pinang	47	7,703	57	10,157	10	2,454	..	..
Java	89	19,013	78	16,677	..	..	11	2,336
Sumatra	15	2,652	14	3,417	..	765	1	..
Rhio	10	2,409	3	304	..	..	7	2,105
Siam	6	1,984	9	3,050	3	1,066	..	..
Cochin China	5	1,662	4	997	..	..	1	665
New South Wales	9	2,737	6	1,657	..	..	3	1,080
Cape of Good Hope	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Borneo	17	3,013	13	2,484	..	..	4	529
Tringanu and other neighb. ports ..	6	988	7	646	1	..	..	342
Bally and E. Islands	7	1,423	10	1,764	3	341	..	..
	517	156,513	539	166,053	66	30,317	44	20,777

ABSTRACT COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF SQUARE-RIGGED VESSELS WHICH IMPORTED DURING THE TWO LAST YEARS.

1834-35.....	Vessels	517.....	Tons	156,513
1835-36.....	..	539.....	..	166,053
Increase	..	22	..	9,540

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF SQUARE-RIGGED VESSELS WHICH EXPORTED FROM SINGAPORE DURING THE OFFICIAL YEAR 1835–36, COMPARED WITH THE PRECEDING YEAR.

NAMES OF PLACES.	1834-35.		1835-36.		INCREASE.		DECREASE.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Great Britain	32	9,432	25	7,210	..	..	7	2,222
Continental Europe	6	1,525	7	1,794	1	269	..	..
America	1	450	7	2,147	6	1,697	..	..
Isle of France	2	506	2	506	..	..	..	..
Bourbon	1	120	2	214	..	94	..	..
China	127	61,302	134	66,023	7	4,721	..	..
Manilla.....	14	2,754	13	1,834	..	..	1	920
Calcutta	54	18,108	53	17,131	..	..	1	977
Madras and Coast .	8	2,513	10	5,771	2	3,258	..	..
Bombay and Coast.	28	16,319	34	18,704	6	2,385	..	..
Arabia	3	904	5	1,378	2	474	..	..
Moulmein.....	3	510	7	2,214	4	1,704	..	..
Ceylon	2	550	2	147	..	..	..	403
Malacca	33	3,945	52	5,390	19	1,445	..	..
Pinang	62	7,618	54	8,566	..	948	8	..
Java	75	17,025	52	11,082	..	..	23	5,943
Sumatra	17	3,439	12	2,759	..	..	5	680
Rhio	16	3,219	12	2,009	..	..	4	1,210
Siam	6	1,683	8	2,862	2	1,179	..	..
Cochin China	1	250	6	1,686	5	1,436	..	..
New South Wales .	2	357	2	394	..	37	..	..
Cape Good Hope..	..	..	1	218	1	218	..	..
Borneo	15	2,215	17	2,683	2	468	..	..
Tringanu and other neighb. Ports ..	8	825	6	648	..	..	2	177
Bally and E. Islands	1	405	11	2,047	10	1,642	..	..
	517	155,974	533	165,417	67	21,975	51	12,532

ABSTRACT COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF SQUARE-RIGGED VESSELS WHICH EXPORTED DURING THE LAST TWO YEARS.

1834-35.....	Vessels,	517.....	Tons,	155,974
1835-36		533..... ..		165,417
Increase ..		16 ..		9,443

Notwithstanding the many drawbacks, it is gratifying to observe, that the imports for 1836-7 exhibit an increase in the trade of nearly one million of dollars, occasioned mostly by the great demand for the cotton manufactures of England, Calcutta, and Madras; woollens, opium, saltpetre, sail canvass, and ebony. The total of imports and exports for 1836-7, including Malacca and Pinang, amounts to

Imports	Sp. drs. 8,243,629
Exports	7,806,965

There are no export nor import duties, nor any anchorage, harbour, nor light-house fees at Singapore, to swell the revenue; which, compared with the extent of trade, will appear trifling. It is principally derived from an excise on the consumption of opium, pork and home-made spirits, quit-rents, rents of houses, and markets, property of Government; fees and fines of provisional courts, and post-office dues. The Gambling-farm was introduced by Mr. Crawfurd, and formed one of the principal sources of revenue until the year 1829–30, when it was abolished.

The following is a comparative statement of the amount realized from these sources, from 1823 to 1827 :—

STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE OF SINGAPORE, FROM 1823-24, TO 1836-37.

	1823-24.	1824-25.	1825-26.	1826-27.	1827-28.	1828-29.	1829-30.	1830-31.	1831-32.	1832-33.	1833-34.	1334-35.	1835-36.	1836-37.
	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S, Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs.	S. Drs	S. Drs.
Opium ..	1,615	2,960	20,32	2,050	2,060	2,720	2,060	3,270	3,390	3,440	4,000	5,060	4,800	4,570
Spirit....	682	1,540	941	1,000	1,015	1,300	1,210	1,735	1,620	1,765	1,610	2,130	2,315	1,920
Pork	302	302	..	..	..	..	..	820	550	660	670	560	690	740
Gun Powder....	..	217	..	..	..	201	135	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pawn Broker....	..	175	63	111	265	..	..	165	120	160	140	100	180	180
Gaming..	778	..	3,042	2,556	2,718	2,822	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Market ..	..	..	210½	379	328	392	375	397	426	453	470	480	476	509
Seeree...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	575	490	570	490	550	500	525
Toddy and Bang ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	80	76	65	90	90	70	112

The disbursements are principally on account of the Civil and Military Establishments, convicts, and the King's Court of Judicature, of the expenses of which, and of the Governor's salary, it bears one-third with the sister settlements, Malacca and Pinang. In 1820, according to Sir Stamford Raffles,* the whole of the expenses of the establishments at Singapore, civil, military, and political, did not exceed 5000 dollars a month. In 1834–5,† for the year, they amounted to 87,208 Sp. dollars, and its revenue to 87,262 Sp. dollars, leaving a small surplus of fifty-four dollars; but it must be borne in mind that this surplus existed before Singapore contributed a third to defray the heavy cost of a court of judicature. The average expense of Singapore to the State for the last three years, 1834-5, and 6, has been upwards of 86,000 rupees annually, inclusive of judicial and military establishments, and expenses of convicts from the Indian Presidencies, a great part of which ought not, however, in strict justice, to be placed to the account of Singapore. The disbursements and receipts may be said to be bonâ fide nearly at par.

* Memoirs, p. 446.

† Paper in Singapore Chronicle of June 23, 1825, supposed from Mr. Crawfurd's pen.

The following is an exhibition of the total Receipts and Disbursements of Singapore, during the years 1833-34—1834-35—1835-36.

Dr. STATEMENT OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF SINGAPORE

RECEIPTS.	1833-34.	1834-35.	1835-36.	TOTAL.
GENERAL.				
Fees for Local Passes, granted to ships and vessels	892 2 10	84 9 0	19 0 0	
Rent of the house on Government Hill....	505 3 3	505 3 3	505 3 3	
Postage collected in the Post Office	1,946 4 0	1,674 2 0	2,358 6 0	
Rs.	3,343 10 1	2,263 14 3	2,882 9 3	8,490 1 7
JUDICIAL.				
Fees collected in the Court of Judicature..	9,022 0 1	10,889 2 2	14,468 11 1	
Ditto ditto Court of Requests	6,377 9 2	7,363 1 3	6,219 6 9	
Fines and Fees collected in the Magistrates' Court.....	3,527 8 7	2,469 3 4	2,141 12 0	
Rs.	18,927 1 10	20,721 6 9	22,829 13 10	62,478 6 5
REVENUE.				
Amount of Excise Farms	187,940 11 3	223,479 6 8	228,022 0 4	
Ditto of Quit Rent ..	12,492 3 8	12,500 1 11	12,470 15 5	
Mortgage and Transfer Fees, collected in the Land Office	4,145 8 3	1,543 10 4	1,062 12 1	
Rs.	204,578 7 2	237,523 2 11	241,555 11 10	683,657 5 11
PROFIT AND LOSS.				
Amount premium on Bills granted on Bengal and Madras	1,056 2 10	2,328 10 8	6,910 4 8	10,295 2 2
			Carried over..	764,921 0 1

RESIDENCY DURING THE YEARS 1833-34—1834-35—1835-36. *Cr.*

DISBURSEMENTS.	1833-34.	1834-35.	1835-36.	TOTAL.
GENERAL.				
Governor's Salary	17,872 5 7	....	49,681 7 1	
Resident Councillor....	24,771 4 2	28,706 14 1	28,706 14 1	
Assistant Resident	9,568 15 ..	9,568 15 0	9,568 15 0	
Senior Surgeon	....	....	9,951 11 3	
Assistant Surgeon	4,593 1 7	4,593 1 7	4,593 1 7	
Estab. Resident's Office	4,907 7 2	4,954 13 0	4,954 13 0	
.. Medical Depart.	722 7 7	745 6 5	861 3 3	
Political Pensions	41,679 0 0	19,687 0 0	8,841 0 0	
Local Pensions.....	2,134 1 0	2,134 1 0	2,134 1 0	
Contingencies	9,531 5 7	38,102 9 1	8,155 1 3	
Rs.	115,779 15 8	108,492 12 2	127,448 3 6	351,720 15 4
ECCLESIASTICAL.				
Chaplain's Salary	8,420 8 11	9,186 1 2	3,827 9 4	
Church Establishment.	698 10 11	789 1 10	803 12 8	
Contingencies	2,727 9 8	279 4 9	9,024 7 1	
Rs.	11,846 13 6	10,254 7 9	13,655 13 1	35,757 2 4
JUDICIAL.				
Recorder's Salary	12,630 0 0	3,157 8 0	15,787 8 0	
Court Establishment ..	13,027 4 7	12,597 5 1	12,005 9 0	
Sheriff's Ditto	4,200 0 0	4,200 0 0	4,774 2 0	
Coroner's Ditto	1,320 0 0	1,320 0 0	1,320 0 0	
Police & Crt. of Requests	10,747 14 0	10,747 14 0	10,747 14 0	
Rent of the Court House	3,789 0 0	3,789 0 0	3,789 0 0	
Estab. of Convict Dept.	4,707 15 0	4,851 7 6	5,282 1 0	
Chinese Poor House ..	9,106 9 5	8,931 7 4	8,762 5 9	
Contingencies	14,893 8 4	27,069 0 0	21,328 3 5	
Rs.	74,422 3 4	76,663 9 11	83,796 11 2	234,882 8 5
REVENUE.				
Estab. Land Office	3,941 7 10	6,545 3 0	6,545 3 0	
Contingencies	205 3 5	1,759 9 1	124 11 7	
Rs.	4,146 11 3	8,304 12 1	6,669 14 7	19,121 5 11
CUSTOMS.				
Import & Export Office	2,746 4 8	3,789 5 0	3,789 5 0	
Contingencies	94 12 2	136 13 3	72 8 8	
Rs.	2,841 0 10	3,926 2 3	3,861 13 8	10,629 0 9
			Carried over .	652,111 0 9

RECEIPTS AND

RECEIPTS.	1833-34.	1834-35.	1835-36.	TOTAL.
Brought over	..	..	..	764,921 0 1
ADD, ON ACCOUNT OF OTHER PRESIDENCIES.				764,921 0 1
Amount hire of convicts from Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.....	1,028 0 0	....	....	1,028 0 0
Total Receipts, Sicca Rupees.....				765,949 0 1
To Balance, being excess of Disbursements				258,058 9 9
				1,024,007 9 10

DISBURSEMENTS (*continued.*)

DISBURSEMENTS.	1833-34.	1834-35.	1835-36.	TOTAL.
Brought over	..	..	..	652,111 0 9
MARINE.				
Estab. of Harbour-Master and Post-Office ..	5,428 13 3	4,514 7 0	4,168 3 0	
Do. of Schooner Zephyr	7,539 0 0	6,462 0 0	7,539 0 0	
Do. of Gun-boat	2,288 3 9	2,282 13 11	2,279 11 7	
Contingencies	3,257 0 7	1,798 0 9	1,318 10 4	
Rs.	18,513 1 7	15,057 5 8	15,305 8 11	48,876 0 2
MILITARY.				
Station Staff.....	1,722 6 3	1,722 6 3	534 0 2	
Signal Establishment..	238 3 1	229 10 0	229 10 0	
Magazine	1,659 4 0	1,659 4 0	1,764 8 0	
Contingencies	5,466 14 5	5,354 12 11	5,927 3 3	
Rs.	9,086 11 9	8,966 1 2	8,455 5 5	26,508 2 4
PROFIT AND LOSS.				
Interest on Government Promissory Notes of the 4 and 5 per cent. Loan	....	611 6 10	1,566 8 0	2,177 14 10
				729,673 2 1
ADD, ON ACCOUNT OF OTHER PRESIDENCIES.				
Advances on account of pay and allowances to the Troops	96,125 9 4	43,466 14 2	61,924 9 4*	
Amount purchase of supplies, &c. for the use of ditto	23,669 10 7	9,433 14 11	0 0 0	
Amount of expenses incurred on account of the convicts from Bengal, Madras, & Bombay	12,838 15 5	14,128 9 2	32,746 4 10	
	132,634 3 4	67,029 6 3	94,670 14 2	294,334 7 9
Total Disbursements Sicca Rupees				1,024,007 9 10

* Independent of family money drawn at Madras, and provisions, &c.

THE FOLLOWING IS AN ABSTRACT STATEMENT SHEWING THE ACTUAL AMOUNT OF LOCAL RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS OF SINGAPORE RESIDENCY, FOR THE YEARS 1830-31—1831-32—1832-33—1833-34 AND 1834-35.

Years.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Charges on account of Convicts, including Provisions, &c.	Advances to Military Paymaster.
1830-31 . . .	210,003 10 0	239,619 15 5	27,399 13 11	76,454 14 6
1831-32 . . .	192,205 12 10	166,683 7 4	25,755 15 9	57,846 0 0
1832-33 . . .	225,108 15 0	190,033 2 7	27,663 15 7	58,929 7 5
1833-34 . . .	227,905 6 0	250,248 5 7	28,481 14 11	75,321 15 7
1834-35 . . .	263,374 13 0	225,673 7 1	31,015 4 5	49,119 5 7
Sa. Rs.	1,119,298 8 10	1,072,258 6 0	140,317 0 7	327,671 11 1
Excess of Receipts	. . . .	47,040 2 10		
	S. Rs.	1,119,298 8 10		

Singapore is garrisoned by a wing of the Madras Native Regiment, the head quarters of which are stationed at Malacca, and by a small detachment of artillery. The former are cantoned at about a mile inland from the town; the latter occupy barracks situated on a point of land forming the end of the right bank of the river of Singapore. There are no fortifications.

We have seen, that the almost unparalleled rise and prosperity of the settlement at Singapore were at least contemporary with, if not mainly owing to the fact of its port being opened, free from all charges and duties, to nearly the whole commerce of the globe. Yet it has latterly, I understand, been meditated by the Indian Government, to impose a tax upon the trade of the island, for the alleged object of defraying the expenses incidental to the suppression of piracy in the Straits. It should be recollected, that the port of Singapore is a mere entrepôt for goods of Europe and Asia. To levy duties on these would be equivalent to the policy of imposing a duty on foreign goods, not admissible for home consumption, but warehoused in England for re-shipment. The merchants of Singapore have naturally petitioned Parliament against such an impost, in the hope of rescuing their commerce from the threatened incubus, and in no little alarm lest their pre-

sent prosperity and prospects should transfer themselves to the neighbouring Dutch port of Rhio. Indeed, the establishment of a custom-house, and the salaries of persons employed to collect the dues when imposed, would probably swallow up the greater portion of the revenue thus obtained.*

The prohibitions of the import of opium into China, and the export of sycee silver by the Chinese Government, will not affect the trade of Singapore so much as is generally expected, as the loss will fall principally on the merchants of Bengal.

Affairs in China still (1836) wear a gloomy aspect; and should the authorities of that nation at last put their often repeated menaces into execution, and exclude our shipping from their ports, Singapore will prove a station of incalculable value to retire upon. The produce of China will then be imported on China bottoms into Singapore, as plentifully, perhaps, and nearly as cheaply as it now is from Canton on English bottoms, the

* Intelligence has just reached India, that the India Board, fully convinced of the impolicy of levying duties at Singapore, have expressed their desire that despatches should be immediately forwarded to India, directing Government to suspend, if not already enacted, and to repeal, if enacted, the proposed imposts. The promptness and decision evinced by the Board on this occasion are highly to its credit.

charges of an expensive establishment in China will be saved to the nation, as well as the insults and petty annoyances of a petulant and vain Government. It is not meant here to argue that it would be politic to give up our present footing in China, under a proper system of regulation, but to affirm, that to carry on an honourable and dignified intercourse with her in our own ports is far preferable to the existing state of things at Macao and Canton. In the event of war, Singapore will prove an excellent naval station to protect our commerce in the China seas.

A Chamber of Commerce has lately been established at Singapore, in February, 1837, composed of the principal European and Native merchants. The Committee comprises British, American, Arab, Armenian, and Chinese individuals. The avowed objects of the Chamber are,* to pro-

* At a meeting held at the Reading Rooms, 20th February, 1837, A. L. Johnston, Esq. in the Chair.

The following Regulations for the government of the Chamber of Commerce of Singapore, were unanimously adopted.

1. That the Singapore Chamber of Commerce is formed for the protection of the general interests of the Trade of the Settlement, for the collecting and classifying mercantile information, for establishing a Court of Arbitration, to adjust commercial differences which may be referred to it, and for communicating with the public authorities on all subjects affecting the common good.

2. That all merchants, agents, traders, shipowners, commanders of vessels, and others interested in the trade of Singapore, be eligible to become members.

tect the general interests of the trade of the Settlements: to collect and classify mercantile information: to establish a Court of Arbitration

Candidates (subsequent to the general meeting) to be admitted on being proposed by one member of the Committee, and seconded by another.

3. That the entrance fee shall be—

For each Firm	Sp. drs. 15
For each individual . . .	10

and that the annual subscription (payable in advance) shall be

For each Firm	Sp. drs. 12
For each individual . . .	9

4. That all visitors to Singapore, interested in trade, may become honorary members for three months, on being proposed by one of the committee and seconded by another; honorary members to have no vote.

5. That the affairs of the Chamber be managed by a committee of eleven members, six of whom shall form a quorum. That all questions before the committee shall be decided by a majority, the chairman, deputy-chairman, or president (where the votes are equal) having a casting vote; that no two members of the same firm shall belong to the committee.

6. That the members of the committee be chosen by ballot at the first general meeting to be holden the first Wednesday in February; each firm to have two votes, and each individual one vote on this and all other matters submitted to a general meeting; five members to go out annually by lot, but to be eligible to be re-elected. A chairman and deputy-chairman shall be chosen by ballot by the committee from amongst their own number, and in the absence of the chairman or deputy-chairman, a president for that meeting shall be chosen from among the members present.

7. That members shall not be allowed to vote by proxy; nor if their subscriptions, fines, &c. are in arrear.

8. That it shall be imperative on parties elected, to serve on the committee under a penalty of 50 Sp. drs., in case of refusal.

for the adjustment of commercial differences; and to communicate with the public authorities on all subjects affecting the common good.

9. That the affairs and funds of the Chamber be under direction of the general committee, which shall meet at eleven o'clock, A.M., on the first and third Tuesday of every month, and at such other times as occasion may require. The chairman or deputy shall have the power of calling a meeting of the committee, and it shall be imperative on him to do so, on a requisition being made by any two members of the committee, who shall intimate in writing three days previously, (except in cases of emergency,) the business to be brought before the meeting.

10. That all orders for payments out of the funds of the Chamber be countersigned by the chairman or deputy, or by three members of the committee, and that all accounts shall be audited annually, and submitted to the inspection of the members of the Chamber.

11. That the committee be authorized to provide a convenient place for the meetings of the Chamber, appoint a secretary, and determine the amount of his salary; appoint a treasurer, pay all the expenses of the establishment, and control the management generally of the Chamber.

12. That it shall be imperative on the members of the committee in rotation, to meet, (or provide a substitute), in order to constitute a quorum, under a penalty of five Sp. drs., for each case of non-attendance.

13. That on all occasions a minority on a division in committee shall have the right to state their reasons of dissent in the record of the day's proceedings, provided the same be done within forty-eight hours of the closing of the meeting, and a certified copy of the proceedings of such meeting shall be granted the dissentients if required.

14. That in case of vacancy in the committee, it shall be filled up *pro tempore* by the committee until the next general meeting, and that they have the power to appoint a sub-committee from their own number for any purpose whatever.

The liberality of sentiment displayed by the British merchants, in opening the doors of the Chamber to the Natives, and in enrolling them in

15. That the office be open daily from eleven to one o'clock, where the secretary or his clerk shall attend; that he keep a journal of all proceedings, and be ready to communicate with any member requiring information, or access to the records of the office; and that he attend to such other duties as may be required by the committee.

16. That all other commercial associations, together with the houses of business at places where no associations are established, be invited to correspond with, and communicate information to the chamber.

17. That the chairman or deputy, or any three members of the committee, or any six members of the chamber, shall be empowered to convene a general meeting, on notifying in writing to the secretary the purpose for which such meeting is called, three days previously.

18. That the committee appoint by ballot, monthly, three from their own number, to decide on all cases submitted for the arbitration of the chamber; that their power shall continue so long as any business, brought before them during their period of service, is undecided. They shall not proceed in any case until an arbitration bond has been signed by both parties, binding themselves to abide by and fulfil their decision.

19. That funds to provide a suitable establishment, and to defray requisite expenses, shall be raised in the following manner:—By entrance-fees and subscriptions, by fines levied, by fees on arbitration and references, as the committee may hereafter determine; by voluntary gifts and contributions, either in money, maps, books, or any thing which may be useful to the institution; and by fees for certified copies of the records and other documents of the chamber, granted by the secretary.

20. That in special cases the chamber reserve to itself the power of expelling any of its members, by a majority of two-thirds, at any general meeting convened for the purpose; fourteen days' previous notice being given by the secretary of the object of the meeting.

the first Committee, is proof of a good and honourable feeling, which will no doubt be reciprocated, and tend to the best results. Early in 1837, the attention of the Committee was drawn to an infringement of the Treaty with Holland by a prohibition of the introduction of British piece goods into certain dependencies of the Dutch, contained in a Resolution of the Netherlands Government, dated 14th November, 1834, which virtually forbids the importation of British cottons and woollens from Singapore into any of

21. That the general committee shall make such by-laws and rules as they may deem expedient.

22. That these regulations may be altered by a majority of two-thirds, at any general meeting convened for the purpose, fourteen days' previous notice being given by the secretary of the alteration intended to be proposed.

23. That in the event of any question arising as to the construction or application of the foregoing regulations, the committee shall be empowered to decide the same.

After this, the committee for the ensuing year was chosen, consisting of the following gentlemen, who were balloted for separately:

A. L. Johnston,	J. Zechareah,
J. Macmicking,	L. Baustead,
R. C. Healy,	J. Balestier,
E. J. Gilman,	Gwanchuan,
Seyd Abubaker,	and
Kimgwan,	A. Guthrie.

The objects of the meeting having been carried into effect, thanks were voted to the chairman, and the meeting closed.

A. L. JOHNSTON, Chairman.

E. J. Gilman, Secretary, pro tem.

the possessions or dependencies of the Netherlands Government in the Eastern Archipelago, saving only the three principal ports of Batavia, Samarang, and Surabaya, in the island of Java. This, it will be seen by reference, is a direct violation of Art. 1st of the said treaty, by which it is provided, that the subjects of the two nations, England and Holland, shall be admitted to trade with their respective possessions in the Eastern Archipelago, and on the continent of India, and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favoured nation. It is likewise provided by the 2nd Article, that the subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other in the eastern seas, any duty at a rate beyond double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs are charged; and that in regard to any article upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects, or in the vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other shall in no case exceed six per cent. So far the treaty. Now in the commencement of 1834, the Batavian Government took upon itself to increase the duty of 35 per cent. (also illegal) imposed since February 1824, upon all imported cotton and woollen goods of British manufacture

from Singapore, to the exorbitant height of 70 per cent. And not satisfied with this, towards the close of the same year, it actually passed a resolution, dated 14th November, prohibiting, in effect, the importation from Singapore of these articles into *any* of the Dutch possessions and dependencies in the Eastern Archipelago, saving only the three principal ports of Batavia, Samarang, and Surabaya, as before said, by enacting that importation should not take place into any other than the said three ports, unless the goods were accompanied with a certificate from the Comptroller of Customs at Batavia, Samarang, and Surabaya, that they had been first imported into and re-exported from one of these ports. This act has not only blighted the profitable commerce of Singapore in these articles with all the ports of Sumatra, Banca, and the vast islands of Borneo and Celebes, which are under the control of the Dutch, but has driven away much of the native craft that used to frequent the harbour of Singapore into Dutch ports; thus infringing also the 4th Article of the same treaty, which stipulates, that nothing shall be done to impede a free communication of the Natives of the Eastern Archipelago with the ports of the two Governments respectively, or of the subjects of the two Governments with the ports belonging to Native Powers.

Both the duties of 35 and 70 per cent. are unjustifiable. A petition to Council, setting forth the grounds of complaint, and praying that measures may be taken by ministers to secure full effect being given by His Netherlands Majesty to the commercial stipulations of the treaty, has already been forwarded.

The Dutch Government, one would suppose, might rest content with adhering to the strict letter and spirit of a treaty; the provisions of which were evidently so advantageous to their interests, without further encroachments. I am convinced that Her Majesty's Ministers, on being put in full possession of the facts, will make such arrangements with the Netherlands Government as will satisfy the mercantile community of this flourishing emporium of the East, that their rights and interests, and the liberal principles of international free trade, are very far from being neglected or regarded with an apathetic eye.

CHAPTER VII.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE MALAYAN PENINSULA—Comprising Geographical Position — Physical Aspect and Geology — Area — Population — Exports and Imports — Tin — Gold — Iron — Zoology — Vegetable Kingdom.

THE Malayan Peninsula, properly so called, extends from lat. N. 8° 9′ to lat. 1° 22½′ N. where it terminates at Point "Romania," or, more correctly speaking, Ramúnia; the most southerly land of Continental Asia. To the north it is connected with the great continent of India, by the isthmus of Kraw, which, according to Forrest, in its narrowest part does not exceed ninety-seven miles across from sea to sea. He states, that by this isthmus an overland intercourse for the conveyance of letters to and from China might be established, which would obviate the necessity of going round Point Ramúnia, by the Straits of Malacca and Singapore; there being a navigable river on the west side, where the postage is but six hours from another river, called the Tomfóng, which falls into the gulf of Siam, near the Larchin Islands. Natives of this part affirm, that a canal

might easily be made across the Peninsula connecting the Bay of Bengal with the China seas, by joining the two rivers. This is a subject well worth the attention of Government. The portion of the Peninsula actually under Malayan sway is that which lies between Point Ramúnia and the sixth degree of North latitude, where its political power is bounded by the T'hay, or Siamese Empire. Its eastern shore is washed by the China sea, and its western side is separated from the large island of Sumatra, by the Straits of Malacca, through which, and the Straits of Sunda, flow the great tide of commerce between the eastern and western extremes of the globe. The breadth of the Peninsnla is from 50 to 150 miles; its length 450. Its direction south by east.

The surface of the Malayan Peninsula, on each side of the primitive mountains, which run down its centre, is undulating towards the coasts. It is shaded by primeval forests, that abound with treasures for the naturalist and botanist, and a profusion of tropical verdure marks every where the moisture with which the atmosphere and soil are charged. Small plains, covered with long grasses, occur in positions which naturally drain off the moisture, while the flats, that wind among the low hills, are swampy, and frequently immersed in water to a considerable depth. Where these flats

lie, in the course of a river, lakes are formed, sometimes of considerable extent; as that of Braugh, near the centre of the Peninsula, between Malacca and Pahang. There are numerous rivulets and springs. A few large rivers, which have their sources in the mountain-chain above mentioned, descend thence into the sea, taking an eastern or a western direction. Their banks are low, swampy, and covered with mangrove, nipah, nibong, and other trees. Their channels are, for the most part, muddy, except at short distances from the estuaries, where sand-banks and coral-reefs are often met with. Their mouths are frequently obstructed by bars, augmenting or decreasing according to the operation of tides, freshes, and of currents in the ocean. The principal rivers on the west coast are those of Quedah, Perak, Singie, Muar, and Battu Pahat, or Rio Formoso; that of Johore, at the southern extremity, and those of Pahang, Basut, Tringanu, and Patani, on the eastern shore. A number of verdant islets stud the coasts, among which are the Lancavi, the Pinang, the Dinding, the Sambilan, the Arae, the Aguada, the Singapore, and Tinghie clusters. The southern part of the Malay Peninsula and Banca resemble each other in geological formation. Dr. Horsfield, in his observations on the mineralogical constitution of Banca,

remarks, that "the direction of the island being from north-west to south-east, it follows not only the direction of Sumatra and the Malayan Peninsula, but of the large chain of Asiatic mountains, one of the many branches of which terminates in Ceylon; while another, traversing Arracan, Pegu, the Malayan Peninsula, and probably Sumatra, sends off an inferior range through Banca and Billiton, where it may be considered to disappear."

This chain of mountains may be viewed as the termination of one of those beams or pillars of lofty hills spoken of by M. de Guignes, in his work on the Huns, as supporting the stupendous edifice to which he compares the elevated regions of Tartary, comprehending the mighty ranges of Imaüs and Caucasus, and the dome of which is represented as one prodigious mountain, distinguished by the Chinese with the epithet "celestial," down whose vasty steeps numerous broad and rapid rivers pour their waters. The Malayan chain, as far as has been hitherto explored, is of primitive formation, principally a grey stanniferous granite and clay slate. As it approaches the equator, it diminishes in height: the highest part of the Rumbowe and Johore ranges, not exceeding, probably, 3,000 feet above the level of the sea; while many points north of Quedah are said to be upwards of 6,000. Mount

Ophir, a detached mountain, between thirty and forty miles to the eastward of Malacca, I calculated roughly (by means of the thermometer and boiling water) to be 5,693 feet above the level of the sea: its summit is of grey granite. Gold-dust and crystals of quartz are found in considerable quantities around its base. It is confessedly the highest mountain in this part of the Peninsula. In the gold countries of Tringanu, Pahang, Gominchi, &c. quartz rocks and crystals of the same mineral are met with. At the southern extremity of the Peninsula, and in some parts of Salangore, porphyry occurs associated with granite. The elephant-rock in Quedah is a mass of cavernous limestone and calcareous breccia, containing fossil shells. About sixteen miles inland runs a range of small hills, of a fine-grained sandstone.

According to Dr. Ward, "the small hills in the neighbourhood of Malacca are formed of a conglomerate, the base of which is clay iron-stone, containing imbedded portions of felspar, in a state of decomposition (having all the properties of yellow-ochre), and small grains of quartz and iron-glance scattered through its substance. The specific gravity of the rock is 2·536; when recently dug, it is soft, can be easily cut, and readily stains the fingers; but after exposure to the air for some time, it acquires such a degree of hardness as to

be broken with difficulty; and its durability is shewn by the present state of the ancient buildings, which have stood unimpaired for nearly 300 years. In its dry state it is porous, from the destruction of the ochreous particles, by moisture and exposure to the air, resembling old lava in its external appearance. In all its properties, it agrees exactly with the rock common on the Malabar coast, and described by Dr. Buchanan under the name of Laterite." The laterite formation is of great extent on the west coast of the Peninsula. It is found at Province Wellesley. I have seen it on the coast of Salangore, and on some of the islets in the vicinity; also at Malacca and Muar. It occurs likewise at the extremity of the Peninsula, and at Singapore. The external conformation of the low hills into which this rock rises resembles that of the ranges lying between the foot of the Western Ghâts and the coast of Malabar and Canara; smooth in outline, with long, flat, or mammillary summits, never attaining any considerable height. This formation appears to commence at Fort Victoria, on the western coast of India, partially belting the shores of the Bay of Bengal, and running down the western side of the Malayan Peninsula. It probably extends also along its eastern coast, the geology of which is still a *desideratum*. Hornblende rock is found

at a little distance to the south of Malacca, probably as a dyke in the granite; but this I had not an opportunity of ascertaining. Some of the islets in the vicinity of Pinang are of a bluish grey limestone, containing pelagic fossil remains, as at Pulo Ledah, and resting on an argillaceous schist, both in strata, dipping at a considerable angle. This limestone has not hitherto been found in the southern part of the Peninsula. I have seen traces of clay-slate in the tin mines of Naning, and it is seen again *in situ* at the extremity of the Peninsula. The matrix of the tin ore will be probably found at no great distance from the line of superposition, that is, where the clay-slate rests upon the granite. The islands in the neighbourhood of Malacca, and many of those off the eastern limit of the Salangore coast, consist of granite, and sienitic granite, in some situations overlaid by laterite.

The following notes on the geology of the southern extremity of the Peninsula and islets around Singapore are deduced partly from a paper in the Singapore Chronicle, and from another* by Dr. Bland, and partly from my own observation. The hill of Johore on the main is 400 or 500 feet high, and consists of modifications of granite

* Journal As. Soc. Bengal, vol. v. p. 575.

and hornstone, with beds of jasper. From this to Point Ramúnia (twenty miles) is a dreary forest. Along the shore of a tongue of land, called Delhi Point, for the space of two or three miles, are strewed large masses of hard and vesicular scoriæ, many feet thick, imbedding masses of silicious matter, in juxta-position with indurated clay-slate, in vertical strata. Dr. Bland found here a remarkable nucleus, which presented an appearance as if lava, in a liquid form, had been forced up from below with a gyrating motion; circular layers having different shades of colour becoming wider and more extended, and edging away into straight lines, parallel to the other strata. At the N.E. point of a reef stood a fossil-tree, fifteen feet high, on a mass of a rock of argillaceous schist. Masses of coral, madrepore, bearing indications of igneous action, were seen scattered around, and imbedded in the scoriæ. Obin isle, about six miles long, is of a small grained granite. At Arah, on the Main, the granite formation ceases, and sand-stone and clay-iron ore (laterite?) occur. At Arah are large masses of decomposed felspar, suited for the manufacture of the best porcelain. From the point of Arah to the point of Pandas, on the Main, about six miles, is a trace of sandstone, but at the latter place a small-grained blue granite appears, or

sienite. The corresponding coast of Singapore is also sandstone and clay iron-ore (laterite), until we come to Pulo Pergam, where blue granite again occurs. Beyond Pulo Pergam again the formation of Singapore is red clay-slate. Pulo Marambang is a small island, chiefly composed of granite, with overlying sandstone and clay ironstone. The formation of the Carimons, exteriorly, is chert, or hornstone. Interiorly, near the tin mines, granite, with veins of white quartz. The general formation, granite, with hornstone overlying. The coast rocky, and precipitous. Pulo Takung is composed of clay-iron, or sandstone, and clay-slate under the sandstone, soft and unfit for roofing, only found here and at Pulo Saler. The Rabbit and Coney rocks are two masses of sandstone. Pulo Tinghi, on the east coast, has a remarkably volcanic appearance.

From information hitherto collected, and from diligent enquiry made among the Natives of the Peninsula, I cannot discover that any volcano exists in the interior; though the circumstance of numerous thermal springs, scattered over the face of the country, sufficiently testify the activity of subterraneous heat at no great distance below the surface. Severe shocks of earthquakes have been felt from time to time; but whether caused by violent eruptions from any volcano on the oppo-

site coast of Sumatra, or by under-ground explosions, either there or in the Peninsula itself, which is near the line of one of the great volcanic belts, is uncertain. It has been already observed, that large masses of scoriæ, many feet thick, exist at Delhi Point. Natives have traditions of the sudden sinking of mountains in the interior, and their sites being occupied by lakes.

There are thermal springs in the vicinity of Malacca; at Ayer-pannas, near Sabang, and at Lundi, in the Naning district. I have visited the two first places, and found the temperature of the water at noon, of the springs at Ayer-pannas, to be 120° Fahrenheit, and at 6 A. M. 113½°. The temperature of the hot springs at Sabang was found at 6 A. M. to be 110°. The variation in the former instance is accounted for by the different temperature of the atmosphere at the time of ascertaining the heat. The temperature of the springs, in both cases, I found in several comparative trials, to exceed that of the atmosphere by an average of 35° Fahrenheit. At the wells near Sabang, when the bulb of the thermometer was pushed into the soft vegetable mould at the bottom of the spring, the thermometer rose to 130°. The springs at both places are situated in swampy flats; the nearest hills are of laterite and granite. They average from one to two and a half feet in

depth, and are discoverable at a distance by the steam and odour that escape. The water is of a pale bluish-green tinge; from the bottom bubbles of air (probably sulphurated hydrogen gas) ever and anon find their way to the surface, where they burst. Dr. Ward analyzed a portion of the water from the springs at Ayer-pannas, and found that, on slow evaporation in a sand-bath, 1,000 grains of the water left a residuum of eight grains of saline matter, principally muriate of soda, with a slightly bitter taste, indicating the presence of sulphate of magnesia.

The superposition of the rocks of the Malayan Peninsula follows the order marked by European geologists. Uplifted masses of granite occur in contact both with primary and secondary formations; on it is found resting in strata, highly inclined, clay-slate, which has hitherto presented no traces of organic remains; also laterite and sandstone. The period at which the igneous rocks were upheaved, if, following Elie de Beaumont, we may be permitted to form an estimate, by parallelism of elevation, is contemporaneous with that of rocks of the same class, forming the Ghâts in Peninsular India, and the principal ranges of Arracan, Pegu, Ceylon, and Sumatra. Over the clay-slate and grey-wacké lies blue limestone in conformable beds, as in some of the islets in the

vicinity of Pinang, and sandstone as at Singapore. Overlying the sandstone, and sometimes reposing immediately on granite, we find that singular rock, the laterite, in which I have not hitherto been able to discover any marks of stratification. Jasper and hornstone are found in beds in the granite; porphyry and sienitic granite, interposed in unstratified masses. The trap will be probably found in dykes cutting the granite. The strike of the argillaceous schist, as observed at Saddle Island, followed the general direction of the Peninsula, viz. south by east. Both the clay slate and limestone dip at an angle, from 45° to 65° from the protruded or Plutonian rocks, as shewn in Dr. Ward's section of Pinang, Saddle and Kha Islands, indicating an origin prior to the convulsion by which the granite was upheaved. The foregoing will, I fear, prove a most unsatisfactory sketch to the geological reader; much remains to be done by careful observation and collection of facts, both here and in our other Asiatic possessions, before an attempt can be successfully made to classify the formations of India with those of Europe. In the Malay Peninsula especially, great impediments exist to connected geological survey, from the density of forest, and closeness of vegetation. I will conclude by pointing out a few *desiderata* to the geological observer. First, the

careful examination of that singular mass of limestone the Elephant rock, in the Quedah territory, with a view to the discovery of fossil remains. It was visited by Dr. Ward, who found resting on the base of the limestone, a bed of reddish, yellow, cellular, calcareous breccia, containing, with shells and pieces of coral, small angular portions of a deep red argillaceous substance, resembling that composing an island, in the neighbourhood called Pulo Sonsong. This substance is probably red earth, or clay, resulting from the decomposition of the limestone; for it is noticed by M. de Cristol, in his *Observations Genérales sur les Bréches Osseuses*, that in all cases where the red cement occurs, the cleft is in limestone, or where matter may be washed from limestone. A fragment from this bed bore the distinct impression of a fossil shell, supposed by Dr. Ward to be a species of cirrus.* At the foot of a detached piece of the limestone rock he found elevated, about eight or ten feet above the level of the surrounding plain, a quantity of shells, chiefly cockles, oysters, and a larger kind of muscle, which he describes to have been cemented together, in one compact mass,

* The Secretary of the Asiatic Society, Mr. Prinsep, seems to think this supposed impression of a cirrus might be that of one of Dr. Bland's species of Pterocyclos, found on Pulo Susson, an island opposite Quedah.—(As. Journal, December, 1836, p. 784.)

by calcareous matter, the interstices being filled with soft earth, containing numerous smaller shells. The mass was of irregular shape, between three and four feet square, and about the same in thickness, perfectly superficial, and not connected in any way with the rocks near it. No appearance of shelly strata was discovered in the neighbourhood.

The rock itself is an insulated mass of limestone, close-grained, and of a dark smoky grey colour, perforated by stalactitic caverns of considerable size. It is situated about six miles from the coast, in an immense plain, bounded to the east by a small ridge of hills, about sixteen miles inland, supposed to be composed of a fine-grained sandstone. The soil of the plain is a whitish clay, mixed with sand. From its general appearance, the low nature of the surrounding country, the existence of the shells in the breccia, and local tradition, Dr. Ward thinks that it was at one time surrounded by the sea, and at no very distant period. The nature of the fossils, when discovered, must determine this point. It does not appear that the stalagmitic flooring of the caves was broken up by Dr. Ward: this should be done in order to get at the silt, sand, gravel, or mud, in which organic remains have been usually found imbedded in the ossiferous caverns of Europe.

The bottom of the numerous caverns in the islets, frequented by the adventurous birds'-nest gatherers, might, with advantage, be subjected to a similar process. Pulo Ledah-dedarat, and the whole Lancavi cluster, merit a more careful examination. The island (Pulo Ledah), as described by Dr. Bland, lies off the Quedah coast, in sight of the main land, and forms one of the Lancavi group. It is about a mile and a half in circumference, and rises to the height of 400 or 500 feet, crowned by a castellated looking rock, with perpendicular strata: the whole appears composed of limestone, having a considerable proportion of silicious matter deposited in it, with veins of quartz a few inches in breadth occasionally intersecting it. The rocks are found generally stratified, the strata being from one to three or four feet in thickness, dipping at an angle of about 45° eastward; the surface, wherever exposed, is rough and uneven, though there are numerous caverns whose roofs, not being exposed, are smoother, and they have evidently been formed by the action of waves, which is still producing similar effects in certain situations. On the north side of the island are seen large masses of the same rock, from twenty to thirty feet in length and breadth, and ten feet in thickness, lying in juxtaposition, and no doubt originally deposited *en masse*, but which, having

been raised unequally, have been broken into their present form and appearance. These masses contain numerous fossil remains; quantities of testaceous deposits appear in all directions, partly above the general surface, undergoing disintegration along with the matrix in which they are imbedded. Of the fossil nautilus, many were observed by Dr. Bland, some thought to be ammonites: silicious cylinders, also a fossil spine, which, from the round cup-like appearance of the vertebræ, was probably that of a fish.

The next point to which I would call attention is the careful observation of the laterite, at its line of junction with the rocks on which it is found resting, viz. granite at Malacca, and sandstone at Singapore, Arah, and Pulo Takung;—whether the strata of the latter rocks are horizontal or inclined, and whether there be any appearance of stratification or fossil remains in the laterite, or if it ever occurs in the form of dykes in its associated rocks. The origin of this rock, igneous or detrital, whether it burst up from beneath the crust of our planet like the salses or mud-eruptions of South America, overflowing the surface in the manner of basalt, and other varieties of trap or lava, or whether it was formed from the disintegrations of subjacent rocks, or from the detritus of elevated plutonic rocks, over the base of which it

is generally found, are questions still undecided in Indian geology. Mud volcanoes are known to exist in Pegu. In the Reports of the British Association for 1831–2 is the following passage in the Report on Geology, by the Rev. W. D. Conybeare :—" We learn that primitive formations, in which granitic rocks bear the principal proportion, occupy not only the great Himalayan northern chain, but also three-fourths of the entire Peninsula, from the vale of the Ganges below Patna to Cape Comorin; although these rocks are frequently overlaid by a thin crust of laterite (a ferruginous clay, considered as associated with the trap formation)." This opinion of Mr. Conybeare, in regard to the igneous origin of laterite, is evidently founded on that of Voysey, a name well known in Indian geology, who believed laterite to have a common origin with greenstone, basalt, and wacké, from the insensible degrees by which, he says, they pass into one another, differing only as to the degree of pressure to which they were subjected when under fusion.

The opinion of some later Indian geologists is in favour of its having resulted from the decomposition of granite, sienite, hornblende, and other crystalline rocks. I have little doubt, however, that essentially different rocks have been described under the name of laterite. The true laterite first

described and named by Buchanan is that of Malabar and Canara, which I have seen between the western Ghâts or Cordilleras, and the coast, occurring like overlying basalt, in tabular and dome-shaped masses, as also at Malacca.—(I have before mentioned a specimen of sandstone from Singapore, penetrated and shattered by the laterite),—but whether it rises through the associated rocks by dykes or fissures, I have not hitherto had an opportunity of witnessing. As far as my own observations extend, no marks of true stratification, no traces of organic remains have been detected. The exterior of greenstone in detached weather-beaten blocks of the Western Ghâts decomposes into a thin ferruginous crust, which might easily be taken for laterite at first sight, and I have seen veins and thin beds of a cellular hematitic iron ore traversing the gneiss of Mysore, which closely resembles some varieties of the true laterite. Dykes and organic remains should be diligently searched for, in order to set the question at rest; the non-appearance of such evidence hitherto, is by no means the same thing, with the non-existence of it. It must not be understood, from what has been said above, that laterite exists *only* as a *thin crust covering the granite*, and other rocks near the coast. I have seen it in the middle of both the Malayan and Indian Peninsulas, compos-

ing entire hills, rising to the apparent height of 400 feet. The observatory at Trevandrum is said to be erected on a hill composed of a solid mass of it. At Beder it is found on granite, and passes into both wacken and basalt, (Voysey.) The laterite of the red hills, near Madras, is supposed, by Mr. Cole, to be of detrital origin. That of the Malay Peninsula, and contiguous islets, resembles, in mineralogical character, the rock of the Malabar coast, is quarried in a similar manner, and was extensively employed by the Dutch and Portuguese in the construction of their forts, and for other architectural purposes, to which it is admirably suited, from the ease with which it is cut and shaped, its durability, and its little liability to splinter from shot.

The next points that demand the attention of the geologist are the strike, dip, cleavage, and dislocations of the stratified rocks, and their relative conformable or unconformable state of superposition. He should carefully note whether the laterite ever rests immediately on the limestone, and take drawings and specimens of both rocks at the line of junction. Trap is supposed to exist in dykes among the granitic rocks, but has not yet been seen *in situ*. The sea has been observed to recede from the western coast of the Peninsula; has it advanced upon the opposite

coast of Sumatra, or are the lines of forecoast produced for the most part, by the deposit of mud and detritus brought down by the numerous streams from the interior? An examination of the west coast of the Peninsula, and approximating coast line of Sumatra, might be made to ascertain whether there be any grounds for an old tradition of their once having been united. Observations on the influence of currents, freshes, and the tidal wave, can be made on the coast of the Peninsula with great advantage. Accounts of the tin and gold-mines will be found under the head of Sungie-ujong, Johole, and Mount Ophir.

The Peninsula contains an area of about 45,000 square miles, and its population is roughly estimated as follows—at 374,266; consisting in the states bordering upon Siam, of Malays, Samsams, and Siamese; and in the more southerly states, of Malays interspersed with small colonies of Chinese, Chuliahs, and Klings.

EXTERIOR NATIVE STATES.

Quedah and Ligore.....	50,000	corrected.
Perak	35,000	
Salangore and Calang	12,000	
Johore (including Sejamet and Muar)	25,000	
Pahang	40,000	

Kemaman	1,000	corrected.
Kalantan	50,000	
Tringanu	30,000	
Patani	10,000	

INTERIOR NATIVE STATES.

Rumbowe	9,000
Sungie-ujong	3,600
Johole	3,080
Jompole	2,000
Jellabu	2,000
Srimenanti	8,000
Aborigines scattered over the Peninsula	9,000

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

Malacca and Naning	37,706	census 1836
Province Wellesley	46,880	census 1835
Total	374,266	

This does not include the population of Pinang, Singapore, and other islands off the coast. The population of Quedah, before the Siamese invasion, was estimated by Captain Glasse at 100,000, and that of Patani at 90,000. These fine provinces now contain little more than one-eighth of their former inhabitants, and this remnant in a

wretched state. The Samsams are a race of Malays who have adopted the religion and language of the Siamese. The Siamese are supposed to occupy that part of the Peninsula which extends from the gulf down to 7° north from Trang on one side to Sangora on the other, where the Malay population commences; but of late years they have encroached much farther south, driving the Malays from Quedah on the west coast, and from Patáni on the east, the most fertile of the Malayan states. The Siamese, it is well known, are followers of Buddha. They are divided into two races, the T'hay and the T'hay J'hay. Their national name is Shan, corrupted into Siam. They are a busy vain people, deceitful and cruel, though industrious and enterprising. In Salangore a colony of Bugis, from the great island of Celebes, is found. Those enterprising mariners are Mohammedans, like the Malays, and are said to have established themselves here and at Lingie, on the Malacca frontier, towards the commencement of last century. Along the coasts and adjacent islets is thinly scattered a race of Icthyophagi, possibly identical with those mentioned by Herodotus, Diodorus, and Pliny, and termed by the Malays Akkyæ, or "Rayet Laut," subjects of the sea; and among the forests and mountains of the interior are found several barbarous tribes,

the Aborigines of the country, who subsist chiefly by hunting and by shooting game with poisoned arrows. Of these the Natives enumerate several, viz. the Semangs, Sakkye, or Orang Bukit, men of the hills; the Udai, Jakuns, or Rayet Utan, denizens of the woods; and the Halas. The Semang and Udai are met with in Quedah and Perak; the Jakuns are found scattered over the interior. If credit be allowed to Native information, the Halas are a tattooed race, dwelling in the fastnesses of Perak. The Semang and Udai are said to resemble the Papúan in colour, features, and hair, but, I must say, among all the tribes of these Aborigines that have fallen under my notice, I have never met with the peculiar features that distinguish the negro of Papúa. The Jakuns do not differ materially from the Malay in colour or physiognomy, but struck me as being slightly lower in stature. Many well informed Natives corroborate my belief that most of the present race of Malays who, at this day, inhabit the Peninsula, are the descendants of Jakun females, and the early colonists from Sumatra, with a subsequent sprinkling of Arab blood. The different tribes sometimes pass under the general denomination Orang Benua, men of the soil. None of them possess any written records, nor am I aware that they know the use of letters, with the

exception of the Semangs of Perak, who, the Natives assure me, write on the leaves of the Stebbal. Some of a tribe from Salangore, who visited me at the mouth of the Lingie river, sang rude songs, and had, along with their usual paraphernalia of blow-pipes, or sumpitans, and poisoned arrows, a rude species of flute, made of the appa bambú. The tribes frequenting Rumbowe and the Malacca frontier are somewhat more civilized. Many of them have been converted to Islam, and blended with the Malays; from whom, when similarly dressed, they are scarcely distinguishable. The languages of the several tribes slightly differ; but all that I have had an opportunity of examining, bear an affinity to the purely Malayan. The Malays are supposed to be of Tartar stock: both their features, and those of the Aborigines in the Native states around Malacca, are decidedly characterized by the Mongol stamp. To the philologist may I suggest a comparative examination of the language of the older Tartar hordes, and the dialects of these nomadic tribes? The Malay language is well known to be a mixture of Pracrit, or Sanscrit, Arabic, and a language which, I partly coincide with Mr. Crawfurd, in calling Polynesian, some Persian, and a dialect purely Malayan, which constitutes a little more than one-fourth of the

language written and spoken at the present day. Some of the Malays believe in the existence of two tribes, called the Mawa and Biliang; the former of which is represented to have an arm of iron serving as a chopper, and the latter to be entirely covered with long hair. Both are represented to be highly malignant in disposition, and devourers of men. These stories are derided by Malays of information, as some very curious tales of Sir J. Mandeville are by ourselves; they are not, however, confined to the Peninsula. Mr. Marsden (Hist. of Sumatra, page 41) describes two races of wild people inhabiting the interior of Sumatra, called the Orang Kubu, and Orang Gúgu, of similar appearance and propensities.

The four interior states of Rumbowe, Sungie, Ujong, Johole, and Srimenánti, as also the province of Naning, are peopled by the Malay descendants of a colony direct from the ancient empire of Menangkabowe, in Sumatra. For further information regarding the origin, manners, and customs of the Malays of the Peninsula, and the singular law of inheritance prevailing among the Menangkábowe colonists, the reader is referred to my accounts of Naning, Rumbowe, Malacca, and Sungie-újong.

There are a few Battaks and Caffres on the Peninsula. The former are chiefly slaves, or slave

debtors, imported from the opposite shores of Sumatra; and the latter slaves brought over by Malay Hajis, or Arab Nakhodas, from Arabia and the eastern coast of Africa. The Chinese, Chuliahs, and Klings, have been already described in the first chapter.

The principal articles of export and produce are tin from Perak, Salangore, Lingie, Malacca, Tringanu, and Kemaman; gold-dust from Pahang, Gominchi, Mt. Ophir, Kemaman, and Tringanu; spices, elephants' teeth, pepper, sago, sugar, canes, timber for ship and house-building, dammer, ebony, bees'-wax, betel-nut, aguilla and sapan woods, hogs, poultry, buffaloes, tiles, and an immense variety of fruits. The chief imports are opium, salt, cotton, cloths, tobacco, and rice.

The following is a rough estimate of the average annual produce of tin in the Malayan Peninsula and Junk Ceylon, obtained from Natives under every possible check :—

MINES.	PRODUCE IN PICULS.*
Sungie-ujong	7,000
Perak	7,500
Quedah	600
Junk Ceylon	1,500
Pungah	1,500

* Picul 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupoise.

Salangore, (including Calang and Langkal)	2,000
Lúkut (in Salangore)	1,600
States in the interior of Malacca	900
Pahang	1,000
Kemaman and Tringanu	7,000
Kalantan	3,000
Patani	1,000
Total in piculs	34,600

The tin of the Peninsula and the Eastern Islands, (particularly those of Junk Ceylon, Linga, and Banca, which may be styled the Eastern Cassiterides,) is diffused over a comparatively great geographical extent. Mr. Crawfurd justly observes that tin, wherever found, has a limited geographical distribution, but where it does exist it is always in great abundance. The tin of the Indian Islands has, however, a much wider range of distribution than that of any other country, being found in considerable quantity from 98° to 107° of east longitude, and from 8° to 3° of south latitude. Mr. Anderson since states that tin has been discovered in considerable quantities much farther north, viz., in the interior of Tavoy, in latitude 12° 40′ north; the mines are situated at a place called Sakána, about four days' journey

from the city of Tavoy. It is said that it exists as high as 14° north in Siam.

The date of the discovery of this metal in the Peninsula cannot be ascertained, but it is assuredly ancient. Part of *Perak* is said to be the *Témála* or land of tin, of Ptolemy. *Tema* is the common Malay term for the metal. *Calang*, another place noted for its mines, is supposed to be the Malaion *Colon* of the same author, and the *Malaya Calam* of the Hindoos. *Calang* is likewise a Malay word for tin. The Banca mine was only recently discovered, as Mr. Marsden informs us, in 1710, by the burning of a house. The ore of the Malay Peninsula is extremely pure, being that which is called stream. I am not aware that it has ever been obtained directly from its matrix, the granite in which it is supposed either to exist disseminated or in the form of veins or lodes. The ore of Sungie-ujong, Naning, and Perak, is said by Malays to be the purest, yielding upwards of seventy-six per cent. In 1835, Mr. J. Prinsep, Secretary of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, obligingly tested for me the purity of several cast blocks of tin, (prepared for sale,) produce of the principal mines of the Peninsula, the specific gravity of which was as follows: pure tin at the same temperature, 84° 5′, being about 7·290.

No. 1.	from Naning	7·317
No. 2.	Srimenánti.....	7·262
No. 3.	Jampóle.....	7·287
No. 4.	Sungie-újong	7·223
No. 5.	Lúkut (in Salangore)...	7·349
No. 6.	Rumbowe	7·256
No. 7.	Jellabú	7·314
No. 8.	Pérak.....	7·299

Two specimens of the ore from Lukut and Srimenánti were also tested. The former is a fine-grained black oxide of tin; specific gravity 6·74, and yielded a produce of seventy per cent. of very good metal, on simple fusion with black flux. That from Srimenánti is in much larger grains or lumps. It weighed only 6·64, and yielded only 52½ (?) per cent. of metal, giving off some sulphur in the fire. It is therefore inferior to the former, but probably not to the extent stated in the above single reduction. The stream ore of Cornwall, with all the advantages of European science and ingenuity employed in its reduction, does not yield more on an average than 75 per cent. That of Banca is said to give only from 55 to 60. That of Junk Ceylon 64½.

There is considerable variation in the value of the metal produced, arising from some difference in the ore; or, what is more probable, from

adulteration, or from difference in the mode of smelting. The tin from Chinese furnaces is preferred to that smelted by Malays. The tin of Banca for instance, fetches from 16 to 16½ drs. the picul, while that of the Peninsula, principally worked by Malays, sells from 14½ to 15. The tin of Pérak ranks the lowest. In consequence of a supposed adulteration in Peninsular or Straits' tin, some specimens of ingots of this metal, rejected at Canton, were sent from Singapore to be assayed at Calcutta in 1831. This was done at the Calcutta Assay Office; where, after examination, the metal was pronounced to be of good quality and perfectly good in a mercantile sense. The ingots of tin are sometimes adulterated with lead, a cheaper and heavier metal, the presence of which may be detected by ascertaining the difference of the specific gravity; that of pure tin being at 84° Fahrenheit, about 7·29 and of lead 11·35, or it may be found approximatively by casting two bullets or ingots, one of the suspected metal, the other of pure tin, and weighing both separately; the greater weight of the former will serve to show the extent of adulteration — care must be taken that the two ingots are exactly the same size. Another mode of adulterating tin is resorted to which it is right to put the merchant on his guard against; viz. of filling a cavity in the

middle of the ingot with dross, lead, or Malay pice. The shell of the ingot is of pure tin, consequently the fraud cannot be detected by examining a piece merely cut off. A case of this sort was recently discovered at Singapore. The fumes of sulphur are resorted to in order to give the tin the colour of that of Banca.

"Great Britain," says Dr. Lardner, (Cabinet Cyclopædia, No. 54,) "notwithstanding the productiveness of her own mines, imports upwards of 700 tons per annum of Oriental, or as it is more commonly called, Banca Tin, from the name of one of the islands where it is chiefly obtained. The Malay countries are reckoned the richest depositories of this metal in the world; and from them, China, Hindostan, and many European markets are chiefly supplied." The total produce of the tin of the Peninsula is a little more than half that of England, which is estimated at from 3,000 to 4,000 tons annually. The yearly exports amount to about 2,000 tons, including 400 or 500 tons of that received from the Straits and Banca. It appears from tables in McCulloch's Dictionary of Commerce, that Malay tin is now very extensively employed for warehousing in England at the same time that large quantities, probably from Banca, are carried direct into

Holland, where this has affected the export of British tin to a considerable degree.

With regard to the produce of gold, it may be remarked that the Peninsula of the present day, although auriferous, does not merit the appellation of "Aurea Chersonesus" so much as its neighbour, the island of Sumatra, to which there is a tradition mentioned by one of the early Portuguese historians, that it was formerly given. Sumatra by some has been supposed to be the *Taprobána* of the ancient geographers; this, Mr. Marsden with his usual acumen denies, ascribing the name rather to Ceylon, the Serendib of Mohammedan writers, and the Lanca of the Hindoos; and affirms that Sumatra was unknown to them, denouncing the descriptions given by Strabo, Pomponius Mela, Pliny, and Ptolemy as obscure and contradictory. Admitting the tradition of the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra having once formed one large undivided tract to be founded on fact, we might both account for the circumstance of so extensive an island as Sumatra, so rich in gold and spices having, as seems to be the case, escaped the notice of ancient geographers; and strengthen the opinion which has applied the term of "Aurea Chersonesus" to this part of the continent of Asia. How far geological observations will corroborate this supposition remains to

be shewn. The quantity of gold-dust exported annually from the south-west coast of Sumatra and Achin alone, according to Marsden and Hamilton, amounts to 26,400 oz. The former states that there are no fewer than twelve hundred gold mines in the dominions of Menangkábowe, (in the interior of Sumatra,) alone; a considerable portion of the produce of which (perhaps one-half) never comes into the hands of Europeans.

The annual produce of gold from the Malayan Peninsula, on a rough estimate, amounts to 19,800 ounces. It is chiefly got at Ulu Pahang, Tringanu, Kalantan, Johole, Gominchi, and Jellye, at Reccan and Battan Moring, and other places at the foot of Mount Ophir. It occurs disseminated, and in thin granular veins, in quartz; and in alluvial deposits, such as beds of streams. It has been found near beds of tin ore.

A small quantity of iron is found in the interior of Quedah. Siam, and Billiton, produce this metal in abundance.

I do not find that silver is obtained in any part of the Peninsula; although Pérak, from its name, which in Malay signifies silver, and which is conjectured by Marsden to have been the Αργυσα of Ptolemy, seems to have derived its appellation from the presence of this metal; for which pos-

sibly, however, the tin might have been at first mistaken.

ZOOLOGY.—Mammalia.

Quadrumana.—In this cursory sketch of the zoology of the Peninsula, a few only of the most remarkable animals will be mentioned. Beginning with the Mammalia, the order Quadrumana ranks first. It has been stated that the great Orang Utan is found there, but I much question whether this has been ascertained by naturalists. It is far from improbable that the Pongo Wormbii, a variety of Simia, has been mistaken for it. Of the genus Hylobátes are the Siamang, or the Simia Syndactyla of Raffles; the Black Unka, or Simia Lar, of Vigors; the White Unka, or Hylobates agilis of F. Cuvier; the Chimpansé, or Simia Troglodytes, of Linnæus. Of the genus Semnopithecus are the Chingkou, or Simia cristata, of Raffles; the Lotong, or Semnopithecus Maurus, of F. Cuvier; the Kra, or Simia fascicularis; and of the genus Macacus, the Broh, or Simia carpolegus. Of the genus Loris are two species, the Kukang, or Lemur turdigradus, and the Nycticebus Javanicus, the latter of which, however, I have not seen. The former of these animals is termed by the Malays Kamálasan, from

its supposed bashfulness in hiding its face, or rather screening its eyes from light, its habits being nocturnal.

Cheiroptera. — Among the Cheiropterous, or Bat family, are the Vampire bat, the Vespertilio vampyrus, or the Kulowang of the Malays. The Pteropus edulis, or edible russette, is said to be found in the islands.

Plantigrada.—Of the Plantigrada tribe are the Malayan Bear, called the Bruang by Malays, discovered by Sir Stamford Raffles, in Sumatra, and first described by him in a paper read before the Linnæan Society in 1820. A specimen was sent by him to the Museum at the India House. The hams of this animal are held in great estimation by the Chinese. There is another species existing in the interior of Malacca, called the Bruang-anging, or Bear-dog of the Malays.

Digitigrada.—Of the Digitigrada there are the Lutra Leptonyx, or " Dog of the Water," the Anging Ayer, or Otter of the Malays, and several of the genus Viverra, viz. the Musang, the Musang Jebbat, or civet cat, and the Musang Akkar or Climbing Musang. Of the genus Felis, we have the royal tiger, the tiger cat, the spotted

black tiger, or the Rimou Arang of the Malays, a singularly untameable beast; the Rimou Dahan, or Felis Macroscelis of Horsfield, that lives among the boughs of trees, and the Java Cat, or Felis Javanensis. Besides these, are the Rimou Kumbang, and Lalat, said to be species of leopard, by Marsden; the Rimou Bulu, or Felis Sumatrana, and the Rimou Jumpak and Akkar. There is said to be a sort of wild dog in Naning, called by Malays Anjing Uttan, or Dog of the Woods.

Insectivora.—Of the tribe Insectivora is the Gymnura Rafflesii, an animal of which I have not seen a specimen, called by the Malays, Tikus Ambang Búlan. Sir S. Raffles found it in Sumatra: the native name was given to an animal brought to Colonel Farquhar from the interior of Malacca, believed by Sir Stamford to be the same exactly as that which he afterwards described. There are several varieties of the genera Tupaia and Sciurus, or Squirrel Family.

Edentata.—Of the tribe Edentata, are the hairy and scaly Pangolins, the Penggoling Rambut and Penggoling Sisik, or the short-tailed Manis, (M. Pentadactyla of Linnæus,) called Penggolings, from the faculty they possess of rolling themselves up.

Pachydermata.—Of the thick-skinned family, Pachydermata, is the elephant, Elephas maximus, in great abundance; the Badak or Sumatran Rhinoceros; the Malayan Tapir, the Maiba of F. Cuvier, rare; and the wild hog. Specimens of the Malayan Tapir have been sent to Europe by Duvaucel and Sir S. Raffles: a female upwards of four feet in height has lately been presented by Lieut. Mackenzie to the Asiatic Society of Bengal. The remark of our secretary Mr. Cole, on a drawing of the animal just mentioned, (Journal M. A. S. No. 16. p. 146.) viz. that the figure in the English edition of Cuvier represents a comparatively light and agile animal, quite devoid of the heavy look, cumbrous figure and rugous skin delineated in the drawing, perfectly coincides with my observations of living specimens of the Malayan Tapir. Drawings of the animal should always specify the age or approximate age; as both the colour and texture of its coat, I have seen to vary as the animal grows older. The Seladang is supposed by some zoologists to be identical with the Tapir. The Malays, however, make a difference, distinguishing the true Tapir by the name of Tennok. This is a point desirable to ascertain. The Seladang may probably be a variety.

Ruminantia.—In the genus Moschus, we have those elegant deer in miniature, the Plandok (Moschus pygmeus) the Chevrotin of Buffon, or moose-deer; the Nápu or Moschus Javanicus, of Pallas; and the Kanchil or Moschus Kanchil of Raffles. The Malays dry and preserve the flesh of these animals, which tastes a little like that of the hare. They pine away in confinement. I attempted in vain to send a living specimen of each to England. The Plandok is a favourite animal among the Malays, and frequently alluded to both in their prose compositions and poems. Of the genus Cervus, are the Kijang or Cervus Muntjac, the Rúsa or Cervus Hippelaphus, and the Cambing Utan, goat of the woods, or Antelope Sumatrensis. The Cervus Axis, or spotted deer, has been imported to Pinang from Bengal. It is indigenous in Sumatra. The Bos arni, or buffalo, exists in a domestic state on that part of the peninsula occupied by Malays. It occurs, I believe, wild in Birmah, and at the southern base of the Himalayas. There are two kinds of Bison found in the forests,* though rare. Neither the horse, ass, camel, cow, hare, rabbit nor fox, are, I believe, indigenous in the peninsula; nor the Singh or lion, although Singhapúra or Singa-

* The horns of a Bison found in the Naning district, are now in possession of Brigadier General Wilson, C. B.

pore, is stated in the Malay annals, to have been so called from the appearance there of an animal of that species. Among the Hystricidæ family is the Landok, or Hystrix longicauda, the Malay porcupine. Those that have fallen under my observation, appear to be larger than the Indian porcupine.

Cetacea.—The last order of Mammalia is that of Cetacea, connecting as it were the inhabitants of the land with those of the watery deep. Of the genus Halicore, stands first the supposed Mermaid of the eastern seas, the Duyong, improperly termed Dugong. Skeletons of this singular production of nature have been sent to Europe by Mr. Crawfurd, Sir S. Raffles, and Messrs. Diard and Duvaucel. In 1830, a Duyong, preserved in spirits, was forwarded by Mr. G. Swinton, to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and delivered over to Dr. Knox for dissection.*

* The following description of the Duyong is from the Ed. Cab. Library, No. viii. p. 76. "The Halicore, or daughter of the sea, is called Douyong by the Malays, and has hence acquired the name of Dugong in our books of natural history. There is only a single species as yet ascertained. It inhabits the Indian seas, especially the Sumatran coasts, and has been confounded by several voyagers with the lamantins, which belong to the African and American shores. It measures seven or eight feet long, and is covered by a thick hide, of a pale-blue colour, with whitish marks on the abdomen. The head somewhat resembles that of a young elephant deprived of its

But it had been unfortunately divided into three portions, which incalculably diminished its value. It is to be hoped that this deficiency will be shortly supplied, through the zeal of some of our countrymen in the Straits.

AVES.

Among birds, the Falcon tribe is classed first by naturalists. Birds of this kind are generally known to the Malays under the name of Lang; there is the Aquila Pondiceriana, and the Lang-laut or sea-falcon, — the Falco dimidiatus of Raffles;—besides many others too numerous to mention. Among the Strigidæ or Owl family, called by Malays Burong Hantu, or Spectre birds; in other words, the "flabber ghaists," of our northern counties; the woodpeckers, and the Lanii, or butcher birds (of the last genus is the Báru Báru, an elegant singing bird,) are several varieties. There are four or five kinds of Buceros, or rhinoceros hornbills. One or two

proboscis. The body is fish-shaped; the anterior extremities are contained within an undivided membrane, in the form of a fin. The rudiments of a pelvis are observable, and the caudal extremity is horizontally sloped, or cut like the arch of a circle. The flesh of this animal is held in great estimation, and is usually reserved for the tables of the Sultan and rajahs. Its own food is said to consist of *algæ*, *fuci*, and other marine productions of the vegetable kind."

of storks, among which is the Bangu, or Ciconia Javanica. Of parrots, kingfishers, flycatchers, pigeons, and doves, there is an endless variety. The Hirundo esculenta, or Swallow, that builds the edible bird's nest, frequents the islands. The yellow caruncled, black Mina, or Gracula religiosa of Linnæus, enlivens the forests. Those superb creatures the crimson-feathered Pergam, the Argus pheasant, the Phasianus Nycthemerus, or pencilled pheasant, the peacock-pheasant, the common peacock, the blue pheasant-partridge, the jungle fowl, birds of Paradise, (Paradisea Regia, and Paradisea Gularis,) and humming birds dazzle the eye by the beautiful brilliance of their plumage. The Murei or Dial bird, the Gracula Saularis of Linnæus, is a native of the peninsula.

Snipes, common and painted; wild ducks; teal; the common, grey, and whistling plover; rails; bitterns; red, black and green quails, abound in the plains, marshes, and banks of rivers. The red-legged partridge is said to exist, though I never met with it. The common sparrow and crows are to be found; as they are in every quarter of the globe. The latter, however, in small numbers.

REPTILIA.

Of the class Reptiles, order Testudinata, are the river, sea, and the hawk's-bill turtle. Of Loricata, the crocodile is said to exist. Of the order Sauria are many varieties, among which is the common alligator, abundantly, and the elegant monitor lizard; in the genus Draco, the flying dragon of Linnæus. Among Ophidians is the Boa Phrygia, the Python of Cuvier. Of the Coluber genus are the tiger snake, so called from its stripes; the whip snake, and many others. I once shot a variety of the cobra di capello, perfectly black except the belly, which was of a dark silvery hue. There are also some interesting descriptions of the genera Leptophis, Hurria, Cophias, and of the Hydrus or water-snake.

PISCES.

Among the fishes we have the sword-fish, the electrical skate, the ray, the fasciated ray, the shark, the zebra shark, the hammer-headed shark, (Zygæna vulgaris) which may be seen almost daily in the fish bazars; the Chætodon rostratum, that kills its prey by the accurate and forcible propulsion of a drop of water from its tubular mouth; two other varieties, and the Chelmon. The Ikan Layer is a fish about eight or

ten feet long, that erects its dorsal fin like a sail above the water; whole shoals may be seen passing up and down the Straits like a small fleet of sailing boats. Excellent fish for the table abound, among which are the black and white Pomfret, the Indian sole, and seer fish.

Of the Exuviæ of Testacea, or shell fish, there is not so great a variety thrown on the coasts of the Peninsula as one would expect. Among the Cephalopodous molluscs is the Sepia tuberculata or cuttle fish, several of the Nautili, the Murices Turbinellæ, and many others. Among the bivalves are various Pectens, Spondyli and Mallei; the Monoculos cyclops, which is eaten by the natives, oysters, cockles and muscles.

Crabs are found both of the land and sea kinds, also great quantities of shrimps; of which, and a kind of small fish, the Caviar of the east, the odoriferous Blachang is composed.

There is a vast number of insects chiefly of the orders Coleoptera, Lepideptera and Orthoptera. The depths of the forest resound with the whirrings and wheetlings of families of the Grylli, Cicadæ and Scarabæi; and by night its dark recesses are often illuminated by the brilliance of the glittering fire-fly.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.

This comprises an immense variety of trees and plants, many of which are still unknown, and present great scope to the botanist. French naturalists have occasionally penetrated the forests, but for most of what is known of the botany of the peninsula we are indebted to the labours of Wallich, Jack, and Ward, to whose publications I must refer the reader, contenting myself with a notice of what is most interesting generally. The trees chiefly in use for purposes of house and ship building are the Chingei, the Dammer Laut, the red and white Meranti for planks, the Bintangor, Calophyllum inophyllum for the masts and spars of vessels, the Murbowe, Metrosideros Amboinensis, a large fine tree of hardish wood; the Kranji, used for posts and masts; the Rungas, Anacardium encardium, for furniture; the Medang Ketánaahan, and other Medang trees. The Kayu Kamúning is a beautifully veined hard wood, taking a high polish, and used principally for the handles of Malay knives and daggers. Ebony, Sapan, Lakkar, and Aguila woods also form articles of commerce.

The fruit trees of the Straits are too well known to require a particular description here. The Durian, Mangostin, Duku Tamarind, Lang-

seh, the Rambye, Rambutan, the Cashew or Caju, the Jambu Ayer and Jambu Kling, the Custard apple, Papaya, the Nam Nam, a fruit with a fine acid, and flavour not unlike that of an apple, the Plantain, Pine-apple, Cocoa-nut, Lime, Guava, Mango, Pulassan, Tampui, Jack, Tampuni, and a long list of others.

While the forests abound with bamboos, canes, ratans, parasitical plants, timber and fruit trees, the shores and marshy banks of the rivers are fringed with the Mangrove, the Api Api, or Pyrrhanthus Littareus, Nibong and Nipah trees. The two last are Palmites, and of great utility to the natives — of the tough elastic stem of the former, (the Areca tigillaria of Jack,) bows and spears are constructed, also the posts and laths, which almost universally constitute the lantei or flooring of Malay houses. The little buckets in common use in the Straits called Timba for carrying water are made from the leaf-like sheath that covers the fruit. Of the leaves of the latter — the Nipa fruticans,—the thatch is made called Atap. From this tree a sort of sweet toddy is extracted. Among the Palmæ are also the graceful Areca or betel-nut palm; the true Sago palm, the Metroxylon Sagu, or the Rambiya of the Malays, and the Borassus Gomutus, or Anou palm, from which is produced but little farina, and that of an

inferior description. The Malays obtain from the Anou fruit excellent nira, or toddy, and a sort of coarse sugar; also the hard black spikes used by them for caltrops and pens for writing, which are found enveloped in a black fibrous substance resembling in texture, coir, but stronger. This is used for the thatch of the Mosques and better sort of houses in the interior, and for cordage. The Teak tree, it is asserted by Mr. Crawfurd, is not indigenous in the peninsula, but the Malays of the inland parts of the country affirm that it is sometimes found wild under the name of Játi. The Upas tree of the Javanese, or the Ipoh of the Malays, is found though rarely in the forests. It is described to be a tolerably large tree with an ash-white bark. The aborigines extract a poison also called ipoh from a parasitical plant.

The catechu shrub, Nauclea Gambir, is produced on the rising grounds. The India rubber plant, or Urceola elastica, is found encircling the trees at Pinang. The Rámi Rámi, or Urtica tenacissima of Roxburgh, the fibres of which the Malays twist into fishing lines, cordage, &c., flourishes on the peninsula. The Chinese affirm that the Rámi Rámi is the identical plant used in China for the manufacture of the famed grass cloth. The cocoa-nut of the Straits, I am informed, contains a silicious concretion, somewhat

resembling that of the Tabashir found in the joints of the bamboo.

On the higher zones of the hills are found Rhododendrons, the cypress, fir, and a variety of beautiful ferns. Some specimens which I brought from the summit of Mount Ophir in 1833 were examined by Dr. Wallich, who furnished the following note upon them. (Journal As. Soc. for January, 1834, p. 48.) "The specimens from Mount Ophir, with which I was favoured the day before yesterday, consist of two ferns, three Lycopodineæ, and two Phænogamous plants. They are not in a good state of preservation, and only one has any fructification, but they are nevertheless very valuable, and I feel greatly obliged to Lieut. Newbold for them. The most interesting among them is a specimen full of good sori of Matonia pectinata, Brown, published in 1830, in Plantæ Asiaticæ Rariores, vol. i. p. 16, tab. 16, from a specimen unique in Europe, which was gathered in the identical locality by Colonel Farquhar. The individual now before me beautifully confirms the generic character and general observations relative to this remarkable fern, which were politely supplied for the above work by Mr. Brown; in shape it differs in having a bifid frond, the pinnæ being unilateral towards the bifurcation. The other fern may perhaps be

a Blechnum. The Lycopodineæ are very curious, and belong seemingly to a new species. Of the Phænogamous plants, one is exceedingly remarkable. It has the habit of some members of the coniferous as well as the myriceous tribe; the structure of the wood obviously brings it under the former; the leaves are acerose, opposite, and gland-dotted. Perhaps it is a Dacrydium. The other plant belongs perhaps to the family of Ericeæ."

Of spices, the wild nutmeg is indigenous. The true nutmeg, cinnamon and cloves, have been long introduced and thrive well. The tobacco plant, cotton, coffee, sugar-cane, the pepper, vine, and the true indigo plant, Indigo fera tinctoria, are cultivated with much success. The Marsdenia tinctoria, the Tárum Akkar of Malays, a climbing species of indigo, grows wild.

END OF VOL. I.

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APPENDIX

TO

VOL. I.

APPENDIX.

No. I.

TREATY WITH HOLLAND, 1824.

Copy of the Treaty concluded between Great Britain and Holland, 1824.

In the name of the most Holy and undivided Trinity, His Majesty the King of the Netherlands, and his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, desiring to place, upon a footing mutually beneficial, their respective possessions, and the commerce of the subjects in the East Indies, so that the welfare and prosperity of both nations may be promoted in all time to come, without those differences and jealousies which have in former times interrupted the harmony which ought always to subsist between them; and being anxious that all occasions of misunderstanding between the respective Agents, may be, as much as possible, prevented, and in order to determine certain questions which

have occurred in the execution of the convention made at London, on the 13th August 1814; in so far as it respects the possessions of His Netherlands Majesty in the East, have nominated their Plenipotentiaries; that is to say—

His Majesty the King of the Netherlands; Baron Henry Fagel, Member of the Equestrian Corps of the Province of Holland, Councillor of State, Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Order of the Belgic Lion, and of the Royal Guelphic Order, and Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of his said Majesty to his Majesty the King of Great Britain; and, Anton Reinhard Falch, Commander of the Royal Order of the Belgic Lion, and his said Majesty's Minister of the Department of Public Instruction, National Industry and Colonies. And, His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honourable George Canning, a member of his said Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, a Member of Parliament, and his said Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; and, the Right Honourable Charles Watkin Wynn, a Member of his said Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, a Member of Parliament, Lieutenant-Colonel Commandant of the Montgomeryshire Regiment of Yeomanry Cavalry, and President of his said Majesty's Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India.

Who, after having mutually communicated their full powers found in good and due form, have agreed on the following articles:—

Article 1. The high contracting parties engage to admit the subjects of each other to trade with their respective possessions in the Eastern Archipelago, and on the continent of India, and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favoured nations, their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement.

Art. 2. The subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay, upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other, in the Eastern Seas, any duty at a rate beyond the double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, are charged.

The duties paid on exports or imports, at a British port on the Continent of India, or in Ceylon, on Dutch bottoms, shall be arranged so as in no case to be charged at more than double the amount of the duties paid by British subjects and on British bottoms.

In regard to any article upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects, or on the vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other, shall in no case exceed six per cent.

Art. 3. The high contracting parties engage, that no treaty hereafter made by either with any native power in the Eastern Seas, shall contain any article tending, either expressly, or by the imposition of unequal duties, to exclude the trade of the other party from the ports of such native power; and that, if in any treaty now existing on either part, any

article to that effect has been admitted, such article shall be abrogated upon the conclusion of the present treaty.

It is understood that before the conclusion of the present treaty, communication has been made by each of the contracting parties to the other, of all treaties or engagements subsisting between each of them respectively, and any native power in the Eastern Seas, and that the like communication shall be made of all such treaties concluded by them respectively hereafter.

Art. 4. Their Netherlands and Britannic Majesties engage to give strict orders, as well to their civil and military authorities as to their ships of war, to respect the freedom of trade, established by Articles 1, 2, and 3, and in no case to impede a free communication of the natives in the Eastern Archipelago, with the ports of the two Governments respectively, or to the subjects of the two Governments, with the ports belonging to native powers.

Art. 5. Their Netherlands and Britannic Majesties in like manner engage to concur effectually in repressing piracy in those seas. They will not grant either asylum or protection to vessels engaged in piracy, and they will, in no case, permit the ships or merchandises, captured by such vessels, to be introduced, deposited, or sold in any of their possessions.

Art. 6. It is agreed, that orders shall be given by the two Governments to their officers and agents in the East, not to form any new settlement on any of

the islands in the Eastern Seas, without previous authority from their respective Governments in Europe.

Art. 7. The Molucca Islands, and especially Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and their immediate dependencies are excepted from the operation of the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th Articles, until the Netherlands Government shall think fit to abandon the monopoly of spices; but if the said Government shall at any time, previous to such abandonment of the monopoly, allow the subjects of any power, or of any native Asiatic power, to carry on any commercial intercourse with the said islands, the subjects of His Britannic Majesty shall be admitted to such intercourse, upon a footing precisely similar.

Art. 8. His Netherlands Majesty cedes to His Britannic Majesty all establishments on the Continent of India, and renounces all privileges and exemptions enjoyed or claimed, in virtue of those establishments.

Art. 9. The factory of Fort Marlborough, and all the English possessions on the island of Sumatra, are hereby ceded to His Netherlands Majesty, and His Britannic Majesty further engages, that no British settlement shall be formed on that island, nor any treaty concluded by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

Art. 10. The town and fort of Malacca, and its dependencies, are hereby ceded to His Britannic Majesty, and His Netherlands Majesty engages for

himself and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the Peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

Art. 11. His Britannic Majesty withdraws the objections which have been made to the occupation of the Island of Billiton and its dependencies by the Agent of the Netherlands Government.

12. His Netherlands Majesty withdraws the objections which have been made to the occupation of the Island of Singapore by the subjects of His Britannic Majesty.

His Britannic Majesty, however, engages that no British establishment shall be made on the Carimon Isles, or on the Islands of Battam, Bintang, Lingin, or on any of the other Islands, south of the Straits of Singapore, nor any treaty concluded by British authority, with the chiefs of those islands.

Art. 13. All the colonies, possessions, and establishments, which are ceded by the preceding articles, shall be delivered up to the officers of the respective sovereigns, on the 1st of March 1825. The fortifications shall remain in the state in which they shall be at the period of the notification of this treaty in India; but no claims shall be made, on either side, for ordnance, or stores of any description, either left or removed by the ceding power, nor for any arrears of revenue, or any charge of administration whatever.

Art. 14. All the inhabitants of the territories, hereby ceded, shall enjoy, for a period of six years,

from the date of the ratification of the present treaty, the liberty of disposing as they please of their property, and of transporting themselves without let or hindrance, to any country to which they may wish to remove.

Art. 15. The high contracting parties agree, that none of the territories or establishments mentioned in Articles 8, 9, 10, 11, or 12, shall be, at any time, transferred to any other power. In case of any of the said possessions being abandoned by one of the present contracting parties, the right of occupation thereof shall immediately pass to the other.

Art. 16. It is agreed, that all accounts and reclamations, arising out of the restoration of Java and other possessions to the officers of His Netherlands Majesty in the East Indies, as well those which were the subject of a Convention, made at Java, on the 24th of June, 1817, between the Commissioners of the two nations, as all others, shall be finally and completely closed and satisfied, on the payment of the sum of one hundred thousand pounds, sterling money, to be made in London, on the part of the Netherlands, before the expiration of the year 1825.

Art. 17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at London, within three months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the seventeenth day of March,

in the Year of our Lord, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Twenty-Four.

(Signed)
GEORGE CANNING.
CHARLES WILLIAM WATKIN WYNN.

No. II.

TREATY WITH QUEDAH.

Translation of a Treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance, entered into between Sir George Leith, Baronet, Lieutenant-Governor of Prince of Wales Island, on the part of the British Government, and the King of Quedah Tleaoodeen.

Seal of TLEAOODEEN, SULTAN MOODA, Son of Ma-alum Shah, King of Quedah.

IN the year of the Hejirat of the Prophet, (the peace of the most high God be upon him) One thousand two hundred and fifteen, the year Ha, on the twelfth day of the month Maharrum, Wednesday. Whereas this day this writing sheweth that Sir George Leith, Baronet, Lieutenant-Governor of Pulo Pinang, (on the part of the English Company) has agreed on and concluded a Treaty with His Majesty the Rajah Mooda of Purlis and Quedah, and all the officers of state and chiefs of the two countries, to be on friendly terms by sea and land, as long as the

sun and moon retain their motion and splendour, the articles of which Treaty are as follow:—

Article 1. The English Company are to pay annually to His Majesty of Purlis and Quedah, Ten Thousand Dollars, as long as the English shall continue in possession of Pulo Pinang and the country on the opposite coast hereafter mentioned:—

Art. 2. His Majesty agrees to give to the English Company, for ever, all that part of the sea-coast that is between Kwala Krian and the river side of Kwala Mooda, and measuring inland from the sea-side sixty orlongs, the whole length above mentioned to be measured by people appointed by His Majesty and the Company's people. The English Company are to protect this coast from all enemies, robbers, and pirates, that may attack it by sea from north or south.

Art. 3. His Majesty agrees that all kinds of provisions wanted for Pulo Pinang, the ships of war, and Company's ships, may be bought at Purlis and Quedah without impediment, or being subject to any duty or custom: and all boats going from Pulo Pinang to Purlis and Quedah, for the purpose of purchasing provisions, are to be furnished with proper passports for that purpose to prevent impositions.

Art. 4. All slaves running away from Purlis and Quedah to Pulo Pinang, or from Pulo Pinang to Purlis and Quedah shall be returned to their owners.

Art. 5. All debtors running from their creditors from Purlis and Quedah to Pulo Pinang, or from Pulo Pinang to Purlis and Quedah, if they do not

pay their debts, their persons shall be delivered up to their creditors.

Art. 6. His Majesty shall not permit Europeans of any other nation to settle in any part of his dominions.

Art. 7. The Company are not to receive any such people as may be proved to have committed rebellion or high treason against His Majesty.

Art. 8. All persons guilty of murder, running from Purlis and Quedah to Pulo Pinang, or from Pulo Pinang to Purlis and Quedah, shall be apprehended and returned in bonds.

Art. 9. All persons stealing *chops* (forgery) to be given up likewise.

Art. 10. All those who are, or may become enemies to the Company, His Majesty shall not assist with provisions.

Art. 11. All persons belonging to His Majesty bringing the produce of the countries down the rivers, are not to be molested, or impeded by the Company's people.

Art. 12. Such articles as His Majesty may stand in need of from Pulo Pinang, are to be procured by the Company's agents, and the amount to be deducted from the gratuity.

Art. 13. As soon as possible after the ratification of this Treaty, the arrears of gratuity now due agreeable to the former treaty and agreement to His Majesty of Purlis and Quedah, are to be paid off.

Art. 14. On the ratification of this Treaty, all

former treaties and agreements between the two governments to be null and void.

These fourteen articles being settled and concluded between His Majesty and the English Company, the countries of Pulis and Quedah, and Pulo Pinang shall be as one country, and whoever shall depart, or deviate from any part of this agreement, the Almighty punish and destroy him, he shall not prosper.

This done and completed, and two treaties of the same tenor and date interchangeably given between His Majesty and the Governor of Pulo Pinang, and sealed with the seals of the state officers, immediately officiating under His Majesty, in order to prevent disputes hereafter.

Written by Hakim Ibrahim, son of Sri Rajah Mooda, by order of His Majesty of exalted dignity.

(Seal of HAKIM IBRAHIM,)

Originally translated by J. SWAINE,
Malay translator.

Revised from the Original by
JOHN ANDERSON,
Malay translator to Government.

No. III.

TREATY WITH SIAM.

Treaty between the Honourable East India Company and the King of Siam.

THE powerful Lord who is in possession of every good and every dignity, the god Boodh, who dwells over every head in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, (titles of the kingdom of Siam) incomprehensible to the head and brain—The sacred beauty of the royal palace, serene and infallible there, (titles of Wangna, or second King of Siam) have bestowed their commands upon the heads of their excellencies the Ministers of high rank, belonging to the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, to assemble and frame a treaty with Captain Henry Burney, the English Envoy on the part of the English Government, the Honourable East India Company, who govern the countries in India belonging to the English, under the authority of the King and Parliament of England; and the Right Honourable Lord Amherst, Governor of Bengal, and other English officers of high rank, have deputed Captain Burney as an Envoy to represent them, and to frame a treaty with their excellencies, the Ministers of high rank, belonging to the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, in view that the Siamese and English nations may become great and true friends, connected in love and affection with genuine candour,

and sincerity on both sides. The Siamese and English frame two uniform copies of the Treaty, in order that one copy may be placed in the kingdom of Siam, and that it may become known throughout every great and small province subject to Siam, and in order that one copy may be placed in Bengal, and that it may become known throughout every great and small province subject to the English Government. Both copies of the Treaty will be attested by the royal seal, by the seals of their excellencies, the Ministers of high rank in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, and by the seals of the Right Honourable Lord Amherst, Governor of Bengal, and of the other English officers of high rank.

Art. 1. The English and Siamese engage in friendship, love, and affection, with mutual truth, sincerity, and candour. The Siamese must not meditate or commit evil so as to molest the English in any manner. The English must not meditate or commit evil so as to molest the Siamese in any manner. The Siamese must not go and molest, attack, disturb, seize, or take any place, territory, or boundary, belonging to the English, in any country subject to the English. The English must not go and molest, attack, disturb, seize, or take any place, territory, or boundary belonging to the Siamese, in any country subject to the Siamese.

The Siamese shall settle every matter within the Siamese boundaries according to their own will and customs.

Art. 2. Should any place or country, subject to the English, do anything that may offend the Siamese, the Siamese shall not go and injure such place or country, but first report the matter to the English, who will examine into it with truth and sincerity, and if the fault lie with the English, the English shall punish according to the fault. Should any place or country, subject to the Siamese, do anything that may offend the English, the English shall not go and injure such place or country, but first report the matter to the Siamese who will examine into it with truth and sincerity, and if the fault lie with the Siamese, the Siamese shall punish according to the fault. Should any Siamese place or country, that is near an English country, collect at any time an army, or a fleet of boats, if the Chief of the English country enquire the object of such force, the Chief of the Siamese country must declare it. Should any English place or country, that is near a Siamese country, collect at any time an army, or a fleet of boats, if the Chief of the Siamese country enquire the object of such force, the Chief of the English country must declare it.

Art. 3. In places and countries belonging to the Siamese and English, lying near their mutual borders, whether to the east, west, north, or south, if the English entertain a doubt as to any boundary that has not been ascertained, the Chief, on the side of the English, must send a letter, with some men and people from his frontier posts, to go and enquire from the nearest Siamese Chief, who shall depute some of his officers

and people from his frontier posts, to go with the men belonging to the English Chief, and point out and settle the mutual boundaries, so that they may be ascertained on both sides in a friendly manner. If a Siamese Chief entertain a doubt as to any boundary that has not been ascertained, the Chief, on the side of the Siamese, must send a letter, with some men and people, from his frontier posts, to go and enquire from the nearest English Chief, who shall depute some of his officers and people, from his frontier posts, to go with the men belonging to the Siamese Chief, and point out and settle the mutual boundaries, so that they may be ascertained on both sides in a friendly manner.

Art. 4. Should any Siamese subject go and live within the boundaries of the English, the Siamese must not intrude, enter, seize, or take such person within the English boundaries, but must report and ask for him in a proper manner, and the English shall be at liberty to deliver the party or not. Should any English subject remove, and go and live within the boundaries of the Siamese, the English must not intrude, enter, seize, or take such person within the Siamese boundaries, but must report and ask for him in a proper manner, and the Siamese shall be at liberty to deliver the party or not.

Art. 5. The English and Siamese having concluded a treaty, establishing a sincere friendship between them, merchants, subjects to the English, and their ships, junks, and boats may have intercourse and trade with any Siamese country, which has much

merchandise, and the Siamese will aid and protect them, and permit them to buy and sell with facility. Merchants, subject to the Siamese, and their boats, junks, and ships, may have intercourse and trade with any English country, and the English will aid and protect them, and permit them to buy and sell with facility. The Siamese desiring to go to an English country, or the English desiring to go to a Siamese country, must conform to the customs of the place or country, on either side: should they be ignorant of the customs, the Siamese or English officers must explain them. Siamese subjects, who visit an English country, must conduct themselves according to the established laws of the English country in every particular. English subjects, who visit a Siamese country, must conduct themselves according to the established laws of the Siamese country in every particular.

Art. 6. Merchants, subject to the Siamese or English, going to trade either in Bengal, or any country subject to the English, or at Bankok, or in any country subject to the Siamese, must pay the duties upon commerce, according to the customs of the place or country, on either side, and such merchants, and the inhabitants of the country, shall be allowed to buy and sell without the intervention of other persons in such countries. Should a Siamese or English merchant have any complaint or suit, he must complain to the officers and governors on either side, and they will examine and settle the same, according to the established laws of the place or

country, on either side. If a Siamese, or English merchant buy or sell, without enquiring and ascertaining whether the seller or buyer be of a bad or good character, and if he meet with a bad man, who takes the property and absconds, the rulers and officers must make search and produce the person of the absconder, and investigate the matter with sincerity. If the party possess money or property, he can be made to pay; but if they do not possess any, or if they cannot be apprehended, it will be the merchant's own fault.

Art. 7. A merchant, subject to the Siamese or English, going to trade in any English or Siamese country, and applying to build godowns or houses, or to buy or hire shops or houses, in which to place his merchandise, the Siamese or English officers and rulers shall be at liberty to deny him permission to stay. If they permit him to stay, he shall land and take up his residence according to such terms as may be mutually agreed on; and the Siamese or English officers and rulers will assist and take proper care of him, preventing the inhabitants of the country from oppressing him, and preventing him from oppressing the inhabitants of the country. Whenever a Siamese or English merchant or subject, who has nothing to detain him, requests permission to leave the country, and to embark with his property on board of any vessel, he shall be allowed to do so with facility.

Art. 8. If a merchant desire to go and trade in any place or country, belonging to the English or Siamese, and his ship, boat, or junk, meet with any

injury whatever, the English or Siamese officers shall afford adequate assistance and protection; should any vessel, belonging to the Siamese or English, be wrecked in any place or country, where the English or Siamese may collect any of the property belonging to such vessel, the English or Siamese officers shall make proper enquiry, and cause the property to be restored to its owner, or in case of his death, to his heirs, &c., the owner or heir will give a proper remuneration to persons who may have collected the property. If any Siamese or English subject die in any English or Siamese country, whatever property he may leave shall be delivered to his heir; if the heir be not living in the same country, and unable to come, he may appoint a person by letter to receive the property, and the whole of it shall be delivered to such person.

Art. 9. Merchants, subject to the English, desiring to come and trade in any Siamese country, with which it has not been the custom to have trade and intercourse, must first go and enquire of the Governor of the country: should any country have no merchandise the Governor shall inform the ship that has come to trade, that there is none. Should any country have merchandise sufficient for a ship, the Governor shall allow her to come and trade.

Art. 10. The English and Siamese mutually agree, that there shall be an unrestricted trade between them, in the English countries of Prince of Wales Island, Malacca, and Singapore, and the Siamese countries of Ligore, Merdilous, Singora, Patani, Junk-

ceylon, Quedah, and other Siamese provinces. Asiatic merchants of the English countries, not being Burmese Peguers, or descendants of Europeans, shall be allowed to trade freely, over land, and by means of rivers. Asiatic merchants not being Burmese Peguers, or descendants of Europeans, desiring to enter into, and trade with the Siamese dominions, from the countries of Mergui, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Ye, which are now subject to the English, will be allowed to do so freely, over land, and by water, upon the English furnishing them with proper certificates. But merchants are forbidden to bring opium, which is positively a contraband article in the territories of Siam; and should a merchant introduce any, the Governor shall seize him, and destroy the whole of it.

Art. 11. If any Englishman desire to transmit a letter to any person in a Siamese, or other country, such person only and no other shall open and look into the letter.

Art. 12. Siam shall not go and obstruct, or interrupt commerce in the states of Tringanu and Calantan; English merchants and subjects shall have trade and intercourse in future with the same facility and freedom, as they have heretofore had, and the English shall not go and molest, attack, or disturb those states upon any pretence whatever.

Art. 13. The Siamese engage to the English, that the Siamese shall remain in Quedah, and take proper care of that country and of its people; the inhabitants of Prince of Wales Island and of Quedah shall have trade and intercourse as heretofore; the Siamese

shall levy no duty upon stock and provisions, such as cattle, buffaloes, poultry, fish, paddy, and rice, which the inhabitants of Prince of Wales Island, or ships there, may have occasion to purchase in Quedah, and the Siamese shall not farm the mouths of rivers, or any streams in Quedah, but shall levy fair and proper import and export duties. The Siamese further engage, that when Chow Phya, of Ligore, returns from Bankok, he shall release the slaves, personal servants, family and kindred, belonging to the former Governor of Quedah, and permit them to go and live wherever they please. The English engage to the Siamese that the English do not desire to take possession of Quedah, that they will not attack, or disturb it, nor permit the former Governor of Quedah, or any of his followers to attack, disturb, or injure, in any manner, the territory of Quedah, or any other territory subject to Siam. The English engage that they will make arrangements for the former Governor of Quedah, to go and live in some other country, and not at Prince of Wales Island, or Prye, or in Perak, Salangore, or any Burmese country. If the English do not let the former Governor of Quedah go and live in some other country as here engaged, the Siamese may continue to levy an export duty upon paddy and rice in Quedah. The English will not prevent any Siamese, Chinese, or other Asiatics at Prince of Wales Island, from going to reside in Quedah if they desire it.

Art. 14. The Siamese and English mutually engage, that the Rajah of Perak shall govern his country ac-

cording to his own will; should he desire to send the gold and silver flowers to Siam, as heretofore, the English will not prevent his doing as he may desire. If Chow Phya, of Ligore, desire to send down to Perak, with friendly intentions, forty or fifty men, whether Siamese, Chinese, or other Asiatic subjects of Siam, or if the Rajah of Perak, desire to send any of his ministers or officers to seek Chow Phya, of Ligore, the English shall not forbid them. The Siamese or English shall not send any force, to go and molest, attack, or disturb Perak. The English will not allow the state of Salangore to attack or disturb Perak, and the Siamese shall not go and attack or disturb Salangore. The arrangements stipulated in these two last articles respecting Perak and Quedah, Chow Phya, of Ligore, shall execute as soon as he returns home from Bankok. The fourteen articles for this Treaty, let the great and subordinate Siamese and English officers, together with every great and small province, hear, receive, and obey without fail. Their excellencies the Ministers of high rank at Bankok, and Captain Burney, whom the Right Honourable Lord Amherst, Governor of Bengal, deputed as an envoy to represent His Lordship, framed this Treaty together, in the presence of Prince Krom Menn Loorin Therakas, in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya. The treaty written in the Siamese, Malayan, and English languages was concluded on Tuesday, on the first day of the seventh decreasing moon, 1188 year, Dog 8, according to the Siamese era, corresponding with

the twentieth day of June, 1826, of the European era. Both copies of the treaty are sealed and attested by their Excellencies the Ministers, and by Captain Burney. One copy Captain Burney will take for the ratification of the Governor of Bengal, and one copy, bearing the Royal seal, Chow Phya, of Ligore, will take and place at Quedah. Captain Burney appoints to return to Prince of Wales Island, in seven months, in the second moon of the year Dog 8, and to exchange the ratification of this treaty with Phra Phrakdi-bori-rak at Quedah. The Siamese and English will form a friendship that shall be perpetuated, that shall know no end or interruption, as long as heaven and earth endure.

Their Excellencies the Ministers and Captain Burney, having settled a treaty of friendship consisting of fourteen articles, now frame the following agreement, with respect to English vessels, desiring to come and trade in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya (Bankok).

Article 1. Vessels belonging to the subjects of the English Government, whether Europeans or Asiatics, desiring to come and trade at Bankok, must conform to the established laws of Siam in every particular. Merchants coming to Bankok, are prohibited from purchasing paddy or rice, for the purpose of exporting the same as merchandise, and if they import fire-arms, shot, or gunpowder, they are prohibited from selling them to any party, but to the Government. Should the Government not require such fire-arms, shot, or gun-powder, the merchants must re-export

the whole of them. With exception of such warlike stores, and paddy, and rice, merchants, subjects of the English and merchants at Bankok, may buy and sell without the intervention of any other person, and with freedom and facility. Merchants, coming to trade, shall pay at once the whole of the duties and charges, consolidated according to the breadth of the vessel.

If the vessel bring an import cargo, she shall be charged seventeen hundred (1700) Ticals for each Siamese fathom in breadth.

If the vessel bring no import cargo, she shall be charged fifteen hundred (1500) Ticals for each Siamese fathom in breadth.

No import, export, or other duty shall be levied upon the buyers or sellers, from or to English subjects.

Art. 2. Merchant vessels, the property of English subjects, arriving off the bar, must first anchor and stop there, and the commander of the vessel must despatch a person, with an account of the cargo, and a return of the people, guns, shot, and powder on board the vessel, for the information of the Governor at the mouth of the river, who will send a pilot and interpreter to convey the established regulations to the commander of the vessel. Upon the pilot bringing the vessel over the bar, she must anchor and stop below the chokey, which the interpreter will point out.

Art. 3. The proper officer will go on board the vessel and examine her thoroughly, and after the

guns, shot, and powder, have been removed and deposited at Paknam (Post at the mouth of the Meenam), the Governor of Paknam will permit the vessel to pass up to Bankok.

Art. 4. Upon the vessel's arriving at Bankok, the officers of the customs will go on board and examine her, open the hold, and take an account of whatever cargo may be on board, and after the breadth of the vessel has been measured and ascertained, the merchants will be allowed to buy and sell according to the first article of this agreement. Should a vessel, upon receiving an export cargo, find that she cannot cross the bar with the whole, and that she must hire cargo-boats to take down a portion of the cargo, the officers of the customs and chokeys shall not charge any further duty upon such cargo boats.

Art. 5. Whenever a vessel or cargo-boat completes her lading, the commander of the vessel must go and ask Chow Phya Phra Khlang for a port-clearance, and if there be no cause for detention Chow Phya Phra Khlang shall deliver the port-clearance without delay. When the vessel, upon her departure, arrives at Paknam, she must anchor and stop at the usual Chokey, and after the proper officers have gone on board and examined her, the vessel may receive her guns, shot, and powder, and take her departure.

Art. 6. Merchants being subjects of the English Government, whether Europeans or Asiatics, the commanders, officers, lascars, and the whole of the crews of vessels must conform to the established laws of Siam, and to the stipulations of this treaty in

every particular. If merchants of every class do not observe the articles of this treaty, and oppress the inhabitants of this country, become thieves or bad men, kill men, speak offensively of, or treat disrespectfully any great or subordinate officers of the country, and the case become important in any way whatever, the proper officers shall take jurisdiction of it, and punish the offender. If the offence be homicide, and the officers, upon investigation, see that it proceeded from evil intention, they shall punish with death. If it be any other offence, and the party be commander or officer of a vessel, or a merchant, he shall be fined; if he be of a lower rank, he shall be whipped or imprisoned, according to the established laws of Siam. The Governor of Bengal will prohibit English subjects, desiring to come and trade at Bankok, speaking disrespectfully or offensively to or of the great officers of Siam. If any person at Bankok oppress any English subjects, he shall be punished according to the offence in the same manner.

The six articles of this agreement, let the officers at Bankok, and merchants, subject to the English, fulfil and obey in every particular.

No. IV.

TREATY WITH PERAK.

Treaty of the Commercial Alliance between the Honourable English East India Company, and His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, settled by Mr. Walter Sewell Cracroft, in virtue of powers delegated to him by the Honourable John Alexander Bannermann, Governor of Prince of Wales Island, and its dependencies. Done on the 27th Ramadhan, 1233, (answering to the evening of 30th July, 1818.)

Article 1st. The peace and friendship now subsisting between the Honourable English East India Company, and His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, shall be perpetual.

Art. 2. The vessels and merchandise belonging to British subjects, or persons being under the protection of the Honourable East India Company, shall always enjoy in the ports and dominions subject to His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, all the privileges and advantages which are now, or may at any time hereafter be, granted to the subjects of the most favoured nations.

Art. 3. The vessels and merchandise belonging to the subjects of His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, shall always receive similar advantages and privileges with those in the preceding article, as long as they are in the harbour of Fort Cornwallis; and in all other

places dependent on the British Government of Prince of Wales Island.

Art. 4. His Majesty of Perak agrees that he will not renew any obsolete and interrupted treaties with other nations, public bodies, or individuals, the provisions of which may in any degree tend to exclude or obstruct the trade of British subjects, who further shall not be burdened with any impositions or duties not levied on the subjects of other states.

Art. 5. His Majesty, the Rajah of Perak, further engages that he will, upon no pretence whatever, grant a monopoly of any articles of trade or commodities, the produce of his territories to any person, or persons, European, American, or the natives of any other country, but that he will allow British subjects to come and buy all sorts of merchandise, the same as other people.

Art. 6. The Honourable East India Company engage, that they will not form any treaties or engagements which may exclude or obstruct the merchandise of the subjects of the Rajah of Perak, who come to trade at Pinang, nor will they grant a monopoly of any sort of merchandise to any description of persons, only as is specified in the 5th Article, but will allow the natives of Perak to come and buy all sorts of merchandise, the same as other people.

Art. 7. His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, engages that if any persons bring subjects of the Company from Pinang and its dependencies for sale, he will not allow of their sale in the country of Perak, and the Honourable Company will be bound by a similar

agreement with respect to the subjects of Perak, for the laws of England on no account allow of such proceedings in any of the countries subject to British authorities.

Art. 8. This Treaty according to the foregoing articles is made for the purpose of promoting the peace and friendship of the two states, and securing the liberty of commerce and navigation between their respective subjects, to the mutual advantage of both, and of it one draft is retained by His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, and one by Mr. Walter Sewell Cracroft, agent of the Honourable the Governor of Pinang. To this is affixed the seal of His Majesty the Rajah of Perak, to ratify it to the Honourable English East India Company, so that no disputes may hereafter arise concerning it, but that it may be permanent and last for ever.

(Signed) W. S. CRACROFT,
Commissioner.

(A true copy.)
JOHN ANDERSON,
Malay translator to Government.

No. V.

TREATY WITH SALANGORE.

A treaty precisely similar to that of Perak, (*mutatis mutandis*) was concluded with the Chief of Salangore by Mr. Cracroft, on the 23rd August of the same year, viz. 1818.

No. VI.

AMERICAN TREATY WITH SIAM, OF 1833.

TREATY of Amity and Commerce, between His Majesty the Magnificent King of Siam and the United States of America.

His Majesty the Sovereign and Magnificent King, in the City of Sia-Yuthia, has appointed the Chow Phya Praklang, one of the first Ministers of State, to treat with Edmund Roberts, Minister of the United States of America, who has been sent by the Government thereof, on its behalf, to form a treaty of sincere friendship and entire good faith between the two nations. For this purpose the Siamese, and the Citizens of the United States of America shall, with sincerity, hold commercial intercourse, in the ports of their respective nations as long as heaven and earth shall endure.

This treaty is concluded on Wednesday, the last of the fourth month, of the year 1194, called Pimarong Chattowasok (or the year of the dragon) corresponding to the twentieth day of March, in the year of our Lord 1833. One original is written in Siamese, the other in English; but as the Siamese are ignorant of English, and the Americans of the Siamese, a Portuguese, and a Chinese translation are annexed to serve as testimony to the contents of the treaty. The writing is of the same tenor and date, in all the languages aforesaid: it is signed, on the one

part, with the name of the Chow Phya Praklang, and sealed with the seal of the Lotus Flower of glass; on the other part, it is signed with the name of Edmund Roberts, and sealed with a seal containing an eagle and stars.

One copy will be kept in Siam, and another will be taken by Edmund Roberts to the United States. If the Government of the United States shall ratify the said treaty, and attach the seal of the Government, then Siam will also ratify it on its part, and attach the seal of its Government.

Art. 1. There shall be a perpetual peace between the United States of America and the Magnificent King of Siam.

Art. 2. The citizens of the United States shall have free liberty to enter all the ports of the kingdom of Siam with their cargoes, of whatever kind the said cargoes may consist, and they shall be at liberty to sell the same to any of the subjects of the king, or others who may wish to purchase the same, or to barter the same for any produce or manufactures of the kingdom, or other articles that may be found there.

No prices shall be fixed by the officers of the king on the articles to be sold by the merchants of the United States, of the merchandise they may wish to buy; but the trade shall be free on both sides, to sell, or buy, or exchange, on the terms and for the prices the owners may think fit. Whenever the said citizens of the United States shall be ready to depart, they

shall be at liberty to do so, and the proper officers shall furnish them with passports, provided, always, there be no legal impediment to the contrary.

Nothing contained in this article shall be understood as granting permission to import opium, which is contraband, or to export rice, which cannot be embarked as an article of commerce. These only are prohibited.

Art. 3. Vessels of the United States, entering any port within His Majesty's dominions, and selling and purchasing cargoes of merchandise, shall pay, in lieu of import and export duties, tonnage, license to trade, or any other charge whatever, a measurement duty, as follows:—The measurement shall be made from side to side, in the middle of the vessel's length, and if a single-decked vessel, on such single deck; if otherwise, on the lower deck. On every vessel, selling merchandise, the sum of one thousand seven hundred ticals or *bats*, shall be paid for every Siamese fathom in breadth, so measured, the said fathom being computed to contain seventy-eight English or American inches, corresponding to ninety-six Siamese inches. But if the said vessel should come without merchandise, and purchase a cargo with specie, she shall then pay the sum of fifteen hundred ticals or bats, for each and every fathom before described. Furthermore, neither the aforesaid measurement, or any other charge whatever, shall be paid by any vessel of the United States, that enters a Siamese port for the purpose of refitting, or for refreshments, or to enquire the state of the market.

Art. 4. If hereafter the duties payable by foreign vessels be diminished in favour of any other nation, the same diminution shall be made in favour of the vessels of the United States.

Art. 5. If any vessel of the United States shall suffer shipwreck on any part of the Magnificent King's dominions, the persons escaping from the wreck, shall be taken care of, and hospitably entertained at the expense of the king, until they shall find an opportunity to be returned to their country, and the property saved from such wreck shall be carefully preserved, and restored to its owners, and the United States will repay all expenses incurred by His Majesty on account of such wreck.

Art. 6. If any citizens of the United States, coming to Siam for the purpose of trade, shall contract debts to any individual of Siam, or if any individual of Siam shall contract debts to any citizen of the United States, the debtor shall be obliged to bring forward, and sell all his goods to pay his debts therewith. When the product of such *bonâ fide* sale shall not suffice, he shall be no longer liable for the remainder, nor shall the creditor be able to retain him as a slave, imprison, flog, or otherwise punish him to compel the payment of any balance remaining due, but shall leave him at perfect liberty.

Art. 7. Merchants of the United States coming to trade in the kingdom of Siam, and wishing to rent houses therein, shall rent the King's factories, and shall pay the customary rent of the country. If the

said merchants bring their goods on shore, the King's officers shall take account thereof, but shall not levy duty thereupon.

Art. 8. If any citizens of the United States, or their vessels, or other property, shall be taken by pirates, and brought within the dominions of the Magnificent King, the persons shall be set at liberty and the property restored to its owners.

Art. 9. Merchants of the United States trading in the kingdom of Siam, shall respect and follow the laws and customs of the country in all points.

Art. 10. If hereafter any foreign nation, other than the Portuguese, shall request and obtain his Majesty's consent to the appointment of Consuls to reside in Siam, the United States shall be at liberty to appoint Consuls to reside in Siam, equally with such other foreign nations.

(Here are annexed the seals and signatures of the Praklang and the Envoy, leaving space for the seal of His Majesty to be hereafter attached. Below them is the following certificate):—

Whereas the undersigned Edmund Roberts, a citizen of Portsmouth, in the State of New Hampshire, in the United States of America, being duly appointed an Envoy by letters patent, under the signature of the President and seal of the United States of America, bearing date at the City of Washington, the twenty-sixth day of January, A.D. 1832, for negotiating and concluding a Treaty of Amity and Commerce between the United States of America

and His Majesty the King of Siam; now know ye, that I, Edmund Roberts, Envoy as aforesaid, do conclude the foregoing treaty of Amity and Commerce, and every article and clause therein contained, reserving the same nevertheless for the ratification of the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the said United States.

Done at the Royal City of Sia-Yuthia (commonly called Bankok) on the twentieth day of March, in the year of our Lord, One thousand eight hundred and thirty-three, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the Fifty-seventh.

(Signed) EDMUND ROBERTS.

No. VII.

TREATY WITH JOHORE.

Colonel Farquhar's Treaty with Abdul Rachman Shaw, the King of Johore, 1818.

TREATY of Commercial Alliance between the Honourable the English East India Company and his Majesty Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw, King of Johore, Pahang, and Dependencies, settled on the part of the Honourable the East India Company, by Major William Farquhar, Resident at Malacca,

by virtue of powers delegated to him by the Honourable John Alexander Bannermann, Governor of Prince of Wales Island, and its dependencies, and on the part of his Majesty the Sultan of Johore, Pahang, &c. by his Highness Jaffir Rajah Muda of Rhio, in virtue of similar powers granted to him by his said Majesty, Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw.

Article 1. The peace and friendship now happily subsisting between the Honourable English East India Company, and his Majesty Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw, King of Johore, Pahang, &c. shall be perpetual.

Art. 2. The vessels and merchandise belonging to British subjects, or persons being under the protection of the Honourable East India Company, shall always enjoy in the ports and dominions of Johore, Pahang, Lingin, Rhio, and others subject to his said Majesty, Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw, all the privileges and advantages which are now, or may at any time hereafter be granted to the subjects of the most favored nations.

Art. 3. The vessels and merchandise belonging to the subjects of his said Majesty, Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw, shall always receive similar advantages and privileges in the harbour of Fort Cornwallis, and in all other places dependent on the British Government of Prince of Wales Island.

Art. 4. His said Majesty Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw, shall not renew any obsolete and interrupted

treaties with other nations, public bodies, or individuals, the provisions of which may in any degree tend to exclude or obstruct the trade of British subjects, who further shall not be burdened with any impositions, or duties not levied on the subjects of other states.

Art. 5. His said Majesty, Sri Sultan Abdul Rachman Shaw further engages, that he will, upon no pretence whatever, grant a monopoly of any articles of trade or commodities, the produce of his territories, to any person or persons, European, American, or Native.

Art. 6. It is finally declared, that this treaty which, according to the foregoing articles, is meant for promoting the peace and friendship, and securing the liberty of commerce and navigation between their respective subjects, to the mutual advantage of both, shall last for ever.

In token of truth, and for the satisfaction of both parties, we have hereunto affixed our signatures and seals in Rhio, this nineteenth day of August, A. D. 1818, answering to the 16th day of the month Sawal, in the year of the Hejira, 1233.

The Chop of the RAJAH MOODA,
Or Heir Apparent of Rhio.

(Seal of MAJOR FARQUHAR.)

(Signed) WM. FARQUHAR,
Resident of Malacca, and Commissioner on the part of the British Government.

(A true Copy,)
JOHN ANDERSON,
Malay Translator to Government.

No. VIII.

Original Agreement between Sir Stamford Raffles and Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah, for the occupation of Singapore, in June 1819.

No. 1.

BE it known to all men, that we, the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah, Ungko Tumungong Abdool Rahman, Governor Raffles, and Major William Farquhar, have hereby entered into the following arrangements and regulations for the better guidance of the people of this settlement, pointing out where all the different castes are severally to reside, with their families and captains, or heads of their *Campongs.*

Article 1. The boundaries of the lands under the control of the English are as follows: from Tanjong Malang, on the west, to Tanjong Kattang, on the east, and on the land side, as far as the range of cannon shot, all round from the factory. As many persons as reside within the aforesaid boundary, and *not* within the campongs of the Sultan and Tumungong are all to be under the control of the Resident, and with respect to the gardens and plantations that now are, or may hereafter be made, they are to be at the disposal of the Tumungong, as heretofore; but it is understood, that he will always acquaint the Resident of the same.

Art. 2. It is directed, that all the Chinese move

over to the other side of the river, forming a campong, from the site of the large bridge down the river, towards the mouth, and all Malays, people belonging to the Tumungong and others, are also to remove to the other side of the river, forming their campong, from the site of the large bridge up to the river, towards the source.

Art. 3. All cases which may occur, requiring council in this settlement, they shall in the first instance be conferred and deliberated upon by the three aforesaid, and when they shall have been decided upon, they shall be made known to the inhabitants, either by beat of gong or by proclamation.

Art. 4. Every Monday morning, at 10 o'clock, the Sultan, the Tumungong, and the Resident shall meet at the Rooma Bitchára; but should either of the two former be incapable of attending, they may send a deputy there.

Art. 5. Every captain, or head of caste, and all Panghúlus of Campongs and villages, shall attend at the Rooma Bitchára, and make a report or statement f such occurrences as may have taken place in the settlement, and represent any grievance or complaint that they may have to bring before the council, for its consideration on each Monday.

Art. 6. If the captains, or heads of castes, or the Panghúlus of Campongs, do not act justly towards their constituents, they are permitted to come and state their grievance themselves to the Resident at the Rooma Bitchára, who is hereby authorized to examine and decide thereon.

Art. 7. No duties or customs can be exacted or farms established, in this settlement, without the consent of the Sultan, the Tumungong, and Major William Farquhar, and without the consent of these three nothing can be arranged.

In confirmation of the aforesaid articles, we, the undersigned, have put our seals and signatures, at Singapore, this 2d day of the month of Ramazan, 1234, answering to 26th June, 1819.

Seal of the Sultan.
Seal of the Tumungong.
(L. S. Signed) T. S. RAFFLES.
(L. S. Signed) W. FARQUHAR.

(True Translation.)
(Signed) W. FARQUHAR,
Late Resident.

No. 2.

THEIR Highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong having solicited that the Lieutenant Governor would, previous to his departure, lay down such general rules for their guidance as may be most conducive to the general interests of Singapore, and at the same time serve to define the rights of all parties, that there may be no dispute hereafter: The following rules are laid down by the Lieutenant Governor, and con-

curred in by their Highnesses, to form the basis of the good understanding to be maintained in future:—

1st. In order to contribute to the personal comfort and respectability of their Highnesses, and at the same time to afford them an ample and liberal compensation for any advantage either expected or foregone by them, on account of port duties, tribute, or profits on monopolies, which are found to be inconsistent, and at variance with the principles maintained by the British Government. Their Highnesses are from the 1st instant to receive a monthly payment, His Highness the Sultan of 1500 dollars, and His Highness the Tumungong 800 dollars per month, on the following conditions:—

2nd. Their Highnesses to forego all right and claim to the monopoly of Kranjee and Baloo wood within Singapore, and the islets immediately adjacent, as well as all claims to presents and customs upon Chinese junks and Chinese generally coming and going.

3rd. With the exception of the land appropriated to their Highnesses for their respective establishments, all land within the island of Singapore, and islands immediately adjacent, to be at the entire disposal of the British government.

4th. As a further accommodation to their Highnesses, the Resident will be authorized to advance such farther sums of money as may be sufficient for the completion of a respectable mosque near the dwelling of His Highness the Sultan, and also to assist His Highness the Tumungong in removing and

establishing himself on the ground recently selected by him.

5th. Under these arrangements their Highnesses will be relieved from further personal attendance at the court on every Monday, but they will always be entitled to a seat on the bench, and to all due respect when they think proper to attend.

6th. In all cases regarding the ceremonies of religion, and marriages, and the rules of inheritance, the laws and customs of the Malays will be respected, where they shall not be contrary to reason, justice, or humanity. In all other cases the laws of the British authority will be enforced with due consideration to the usages and habits of the people.

7th. The British Government do not interfere at present in the local arrangement of the countries and islands subject to their Highnesses' authority, beyond Singapore and its adjacent islets, further than to afford them general protection as heretofore.

(Signed) T. S. RAFFLES.

N. B. No date, but concluded about the beginning of June, 1823.

No. IX.

FINAL TREATY FOR THE CESSION OF SINGAPORE, 19TH NOVEMBER, 1824.

A TREATY of friendship and alliance between the English East India Company on the one side, and their Highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong of Johore on the other, concluded on the 2nd day of August, 1824, the 6th of Zulliag, A.D. 1239, by the above Sultan of Johore His Highness Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah, and the above Tumungong of Johore His Highness Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah on their own behalf, and by John Crawfurd, Esq., British Resident of Singapore, vested with full powers thereto by the Right Honourable William Pitt, Lord Amherst, Governor-General of and for Fort-William, in Bengal, on behalf of the said Honourable East India Company.

Art. 1. Peace, friendship, and good understanding shall subsist for ever between the Honourable the English East India Company and their Highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong of Johore, and their respective heirs and successors.

Art. 2. Their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah, hereby cede, in full sovereignty and property, to the Honourable the English East India Company, their heirs and successors for ever, the island of Singapore, situated in the Straits of Malacca,

together with the adjacent seas, straits, and islets, to the extent of ten (10) geographical miles from the coast of the said main island of Singapore.

Art. 3. The Honourable the English East India Company hereby engages, in consideration of the cession specified in the last article, to pay unto his Highness the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah the sum of Spanish dollars 33,200, together with a stipend during his natural life of 1,300 dollars per mensem; and to his Highness the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah the sum of 26,800 dollars, together with a monthly stipend of 700 dollars, during his natural life.

Art. 4. His Highness the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah hereby acknowledges to have received from the Honourable English East India Company, in fulfilment of the stipulations of the two last articles, the sum of 33,200 dollars, together with the first monthly instalment of the above mentioned stipend of Spanish dollars; and his Highness the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah also hereby acknowledges to have received from the Honourable English East India Company, in fulfilment of the stipulations of the two last articles, the sum of 26,800 dollars, with one month's instalment of the above stipend of 700 dollars.

Art. 5. The Honourable English East India Company engages to receive and treat their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah with all the honours, respect, and courtesy, belonging to their

rank and station, whenever they may reside at or visit the island of Singapore.

Art. 6. The Honourable English East India Company hereby engages, in the event of their Highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong, their heirs or successors, preferring to reside permanently in any portion of their own states, and to remove for that purpose from Singapore, to pay unto them, that is to say, to his Highness the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah, his heir or successor, the sum of 20,000 dollars; and to his Highness the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah, his heir or successor, the sum of 15,000 dollars.

Art. 7. Their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah, in consideration of the payment specified in the last article, hereby relinquish for themselves, their heirs and successors, to the Honourable English East India Company, their heirs and successors for ever, all right and title to every description of immoveable property, whether in land, houses, gardens, orchards, or timber trees, of which their said Highnesses may be possessed within the island of Singapore or its dependencies, at the time they may think proper to withdraw from the said island for the purpose of permanently residing within their own states; but it is reciprocally and clearly understood, that the provisions of this article shall not extend to any description of property which may be held by any follower or retainer of their Highnesses

beyond the precincts of the ground at present allotted for the actual residence of their said Highnesses.

Art. 8. Their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah hereby engage, that as long as they shall continue to reside within the island of Singapore, or to draw their respective monthly stipends from the Honourable English East India Company, as provided for in the present treaty, they shall enter into no alliance and maintain no correspondence with any foreign power or potentate whatsoever, without the knowledge and consent of the said Honourable English East India Company, their heirs and successors.

Art. 9. The Honourable English East India Company hereby engages, that in the event of their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah removing from the island of Singapore, as contemplated in the 6th Article, and being distressed within their own territories, on such removal, to afford them either at Singapore or at Prince of Wales Island, a personal asylum and protection.

Art. 10. The contracting parties hereby stipulate and agree, that neither party shall be bound to interfere in the internal concerns of the other government, or in any political dissensions or wars which may arise within their respective territories, nor to support each other by force of arms against any third party whatever.

Art. 11. The contracting parties hereby engage to use every means within their power respectively for the suppression of robbery and piracy within the Straits of Malacca, as well as the other narrow seas, straits, and rivers, bordering upon or within their respective territories, in as far as the same shall be connected with the dominions and immediate interests of their said Highnesses.

Art. 12. Their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah hereby engage to maintain a free and unshackled trade everywhere within their dominions, and to admit the trade and traffic of the British nation into all the ports and harbours of the Kingdom of Johore and its dependencies on the terms of the most favoured nation.

Art. 13. The Honourable English East India Company hereby engages, as long as their Highnesses the Sultan Hussain Mahomed Shah and the Dattu Tumungong Abdul Rahman Sri Maharajah shall continue to reside on the island of Singapore, not to permit any retainer or follower of their said Highnesses, who shall desert from their actual service to dwell or remain in the island of Singapore or its dependencies. But it is clearly understood that all such retainers and followers shall be natural born subjects of such part of their Highnesses' dominions only in which their authority is at present substantially established, and that their names, at the period of entering the service of their Highnesses, shall have been duly and voluntarily inscribed in a register to be kept for that

purpose by the chief local authority for the time being.

Art. 14. It is hereby mutually stipulated for and agreed, that the conditions of all former conventions, treaties, or agreements entered into between the Honourable English East India Company and their Highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong of Johore, shall be considered as abrogated and cancelled by the present treaty; and they are hereby abrogated and cancelled accordingly, always, however, with the exception of such prior conditions as have conferred on the Honourable English East India Company, any rights or title to the occupation or possession of the Island of Singapore and its dependencies as above mentioned.

Done and concluded at Singapore, the day and year above written.

(Signed) AMHERST.
ED. PAGET.
JOHN TENDALE.

Ratified by the Right Honourable the Governor-General in Council, this 19th day of November, 1824, at Fort-William, in Bengal.

(Signed) G. SWINTON,
Secretary to Government.
(Signed) J. CRAWFURD.

No. XI.—*Abstract Tables of the Thermometrical and Barometrical Range, for Six Years, at Singapore, drawn up by Capt.* C. E. DAVIS, (*from Journal As. Soc. vol.* ii. *p.* 428.)

1820.	BAROMETER.									THERMOMETER.								
	Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.
January	29·88	29·92	29·88	29·90	29·94	29·90	29·86	29·90	29·86	74·1	81·2	77·3	76	85	83	72	73	72
February	29·87	29·90	29·87	29·92	29·95	29·95	29·82	29·85	29·80	74·4	81·7	78·8	76	86	84	72	76	74
March	29·90	29·89	29·87	29·99	29·95	29·95	29·82	29·84	29·80	74·8	82·9	80·6	76	86	83	72	75	75
April	29·89	29·98	29·87	29·96	30·01	29·93	29·82	29·84	29·81	75·6	84·6	82·2	77	86	85	74	80	78
May	29·88	29·89	29·84	29·98	29·98	29·93	29·78	29·78	29·75	76·6	85·4	84	82	88	87	73	80	78
June	29·90	29·92	29·86	29·97	29·98	29·94	29·83	29·86	29·83	76·2	86	84	78	87	85	73	74	75
July	29·90	29·91	29·89	29·97	29·98	29·95	29·83	29·85	29·82	75·5	82·1	81·2	78	86	85	73	76	76
August	29·90	29·93	29·90	29·96	29·99	29·98	29·85	29·86	29·83	76·6	82·2	81·8	82	88	85	73	74	76
September	29·93	29·95	29·91	29·98	30·01	29·95	29·88	29·90	29·88	76·1	82·5	81·4	80	87	85	74	77	76
October	29·92	29·94	29·89	29·97	30·01	29·94	29·87	29·87	29·85	75·8	83	81·9	79	87	88	74	78	75
November	29·87	29·91	29·86	29·94	29·88	29·94	29·81	29·85	29·78	75	82·8	80·1	77	86	86	72	76	75
December	29·88	29·94	29·90	29·94	29·99	29·98	29·83	29·89	29·83	74·9	80·2	78·2	77	85	83	72	75	74
Annual average	29·90	29·92	29·88	29·95	29·98	29·98	29·83	29·85	29·82	75·7	82·8	80·9	78·1	86·4	84·1	73	75·3	75·3

1821.																		
January	29·98	29·96	29·91	30·02	30·05	30·00	29·83	29·86	29·83	73·5	80	77·9	75	84·5	82	70·5	73·5	72·5
February	29·98	29·99	29·94	30·04	30·06	30·05	29·91	29·91	29·82	74·5	83·5	80·8	76	85	84	73	81	77
March.....	29·93	29·97	29·91	29·99	30·01	29·96	29·83	29·92	29·84	75	83·9	81·8	78	87	84	72	79	75
April	29·98	29·96	29·92	29·96	30·00	29·92	29·87	29·90	29·83	77	82·1	80·3	78	87	85	74	77	80
May.....	29·98	29·92	29·88	29·94	29·96	29·94	29·80	29·86	29·80	77·8	85·6	83·2	83	89	86	75	77	79
June	29·88	29·98	29·94	30·00	30·03	29·99	29·87	29·91	29·87	77·4	84·8	83·6	82	88	86	74	79	80
July.....	29·95	29·91	29·85	29·96	29·99	29·94	29·86	29·86	29·82	78·6	83·9	83·3	82	88	88	75	77	78
August	29·91	29·94	29·90	29·98	30·01	29·97	29·84	29·84	29·84	76.2	84·2	83·6	82	88	85	75	78	78
September	29·93	29·95	29·89	29·98	30·03	29·97	29·84	29·87	29·84	74·5	83·5	82·5	82	88	87	75	78	79
October	29·91	29·97	29·91	30·00	30·03	29·96	29·88	29·88	29·85	77·2	83·6	82·7	82	88	86	75	77	79
November	29·91	29·95	29·96	29·96	30·00	29·98	29·85	29·90	29·84	76·6	83·9	82	79	86	85	74	78	77
December	29·92	29·94	29·86	29·98	29·99	29·94	29·83	29·88	29·83	75·6	82·7	80·5	78	86	85	74	76	76
Annual average	29·93	29·95	29·91	29·98	30·01	29·97	29·85	29·88	29·83	76·4	83·5	81·9	79	87	85	73·8	77·6	77·6

No. XI.—*Continued.*

1822.	BAROMETER.									THERMOMETER.								
	Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon,	Noon.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.
January	29·94	29·97	29·92	29·99	30·00	29·99	29·88	29·88	29·82	75·5	82·9	81	77	86·5	86	73	75	74
February	29·92	29·93	29·91	29·98	30·04	22·98	29·85	29·88	29·82	75·7	84·4	82	77	86·5	86	73	78	78
March	29·96	29·97	29·92	30·02	30·05	29·99	29·90	29·91	29·87	76	84·4	82	77	89	85	74	77	78
April	29·93	29·96	29·90	30·00	30·04	29·96	29·88	29·91	29·84	76·4	85	82·6	78	87	86·5	73	81	80
May	29·89	29·91	29·85	29·99	30·03	29·94	29·80	29·77	29·78	75·5	85·3	83·6	84	88·5	87	76	80	79·5
June	29·90	29·92	28·89	29·97	29·99	29·95	29·80	29·77	29·78	78·4	84·6	83·3	83	88	87	74	77	74·5
July	29·91	29·92	29·88	29·97	29·99	29·96	29·86	29·88	29·81	77·8	86·6	81·2	83	89	87	75	76	76
August	29·91	29·93	29·88	29·99	29·99	29·94	29·85	29·88	29·82	76·6	82·2	85·4	81	87	86	72	77	79
September	29·90	29·92	22·87	29·98	29·99	29·95	29·84	29·87	29·81	76·9	84·4	84	80	88	86	75	75	79
October	29·90	29·93	29·91	29·95	29·98	29·97	29·84	29·85	29·83	77	84·9	82·9	80	89	86	73	80	79
November	29·91	29·93	29·89	29·94	29·97	29·94	29·87	29 88	29·84	76·2	83·5	82·5	78	88	85	74	78	77
December	29·89	29·91	29·86	29·98	29·99	29·92	29·83	29·85	29·80	75·1	80·6	79·3	78	85	84	73	73	74
Annual average	29·91	29·93	29·89	29·98	30·00	29·96	29·85	29·86	29·82	76·4	84·0	82·5	79·1	87·6	85·9	73·8	77·2	77·3

1823.																		
January	29·95	29·97	29·92	30·06	30·06	29·99	29·89	29·84	29·86	74·2	81	79·2	76	85	83	72	76	74
February	29·95	29·97	29·93	30·02	30·07	29·99	29·88	29·86	29·83	74·2	82·3	80·1	76	86	84	72	74	76
March.....	29·88	29·95	29·89	29·99	30·00	29·95	29·87	29·88	29·83	73·3	84·6	81·4	78	87	84	74	79	78
April	29·91	29·91	29·85	29·95	29·96	29·90	29·85	29·87	29·84	76·1	84·8	82·3	78	87	85	72	79	78
May.....	29·87	29·90	29·86	29·91	29·95	29·91	29·84	29·86	29·81	77·3	83·8	82·5	79	87	86	75	81	78
June	29·88	29·90	29·87	29·94	29·97	29·91	29·81	29·83	29·81	77·4	84	83·1	82	87	86	75	78	81
July.....	29·89	29·90	29·84	29·92	29·95	29·91	29·83	29·83	29·80	76·7	84·8	83·9	81	88	86	74	79	81
August	29·90	29·91	29·88	29·94	29·96	29·91	29·85	29·85	29·83	77·7	83·5	82·7	81	87	85	75	78	77
September	29·91	29·94	29·88	29·96	29·97	29·92	29·87	29·89	29·84	77·3	84·9	83·8	81	88	86	75	76	76
October	29·92	29·93	29·90	29·99	29·99	29·93	29·85	29·85	29·82	76·5	83·6	82·8	82	86	86	74	78	79
November	29·91	29·93	29·90	29·96	29·98	29·98	29·85	29·88	29·85	75·7	82·3	80·6	78	88	88	74	77	76
December	29·95	29·96	29·92	39·99	30·03	29·98	29·89	29·90	29·85	75 5	83·6	81·3	76	85	86	73	81	73
Annual average	29·91	29·93	29·88	29·97	29·99	29·94	29·87	29·87	29·83	75·9	83·7	82·1	79	86·9	85·4	73·7	78	77·6

No. XI.—*Continued.*

1824.	BAROMETER.									THERMOMETER.								
	Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Average of the Month.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.	6 a.m.	Noon.	6 p.m.
January	29·99	30·00	29·97	30·09	30·10	30·09	29·87	29·88	29·85	75·4	83·3	80·3	77	87	85	72	77	77
February	29·95	29·96	29·94	30·03	30·00	29·97	29·87	29·90	29·90	76·3	83·9	81·6	78	88	84	74	80	78
March	29·94	29·96	29·90	30·08	30·09	30·04	29·88	29·91	29·86	77·6	84·2	80·3	80	86	85	74	79	81
April	29·90	29·94	29·88	29·97	30·02	29·95	29·85	29·86	29·82	78·9	84·5	83·2	81	88	89	76	78	78
May	29·88	29·92	29·90	29·94	29·97	29·92	29·83	29·85	29·81	77·7	83·1	82·8	83	86	85	74	76	81
June	29·89	29·90	29·84	29·93	29·96	29·95	29·88	29·82	29·80	79·1	84·5	83·4	82	86	86	74	80	78
July	29·92	29·93	29·98	29·98	30·00	29·95	29·80	29·88	29·86	80	84·9	86·4	83	87	86	76	80	80
August	29·84	29·96	29·90	29·96	30·00	29·98	29·87	29·87	29·87	79·4	84·5	83·7	82	88	86	75	77	77
September	29·92	29·95	29·90	29·98	29·99	29·95	29·87	29·90	29·86	77·3	84·3	83·8	82	88	87	74	76	79
October	29·91	29·93	29·89	29·97	29·99	29·94	29·87	29·87	29·85	76·6	84·3	83·1	78	87	86	74	79	78
November	29·91	29·93	29·89	29·95	30·00	29·95	29·83	29·85	29·81	76·4	82·5	81·6	82	86	85	73	79	76
December	29·97	29·96	29·92	30·00	30·03	29·99	29·90	29·92	29·89	75·3	80·2	79·8	78	84	83	73	75	77
Annual average	29·91	29·94	29·90	29·99	30·06	29·97	29·85	29·87	29·84	77·7	84	82·7	80·7	87	85·8	74·2	78·2	78·2

1825.																		
January	29·94	29·95	29·92	30·03	30·06	29·99	29·90	29·90	29·87	75·1	80·9	79·9	77	86	83	72	75	74
February	29·96	29·99	29·93	30·02	30·04	30·00	29·88	29·91	29·87	86·2	85·2	79·8	79	87	85	74	82	78
March	29·91	29·93	29·89	29·97	29·99	29·97	29·83	29·85	29·83	76·5	84·6	83·6	80	88	86	73	76	79
April	29·91	29·94	29·88	29·99	29·99	29·95	29·85	29·87	29·82	77·2	84·6	83·7	81	87	87	73	80	79
May	29·88	29·91	29·87	29·94	29·99	29·91	29·83	29·84	29·82	77·6	84·7	83·7	81	87	86	75	78	80
June	29·89	29·91	29·88	29·98	29·97	29·97	29·80	29·86	29·82	79·9	84·3	84·1	84	88	87	75	77	77
July	29·88	29·85	29·87	29·95	29·96	29·92	29·82	29·83	29·83	76·6	82·9	82·6	82	88	85	73	78	77
August	29·91	29·93	29·91	29·95	29·99	29·95	29·85	29·88	29·84	76·5	82·2	81·4	81	87	85	75	78	78
September	29·92	29·98	29·91	29·99	30·03	29·98	29·85	29·87	29·83	77·6	83·3	80·6	82	87	85	74	76	77
October	29·91	29·93	29·90	29·96	29·97	29·95	29·83	29·88	29·80	76·8	83·6	83·5	79	88	86	75	76	79
November	29·97	29·89	29·87	29·91	29·95	29·93	29·80	29·83	29·80	76·6	84·3	82·9	79	86	86	71	80	79
December	29 88	29·90	29·88	29·94	30·00	29·98	29·82	29·85	29·82	75·7	81·7	80·8	78	85	86	73	75	75
Annual average	29·90	29·92	29·89	29·97	29·99	29·95	29·84	29·86	29·83	76·8	83·6	82·2	80·2	87	85·6	73·6	77·6	77·6

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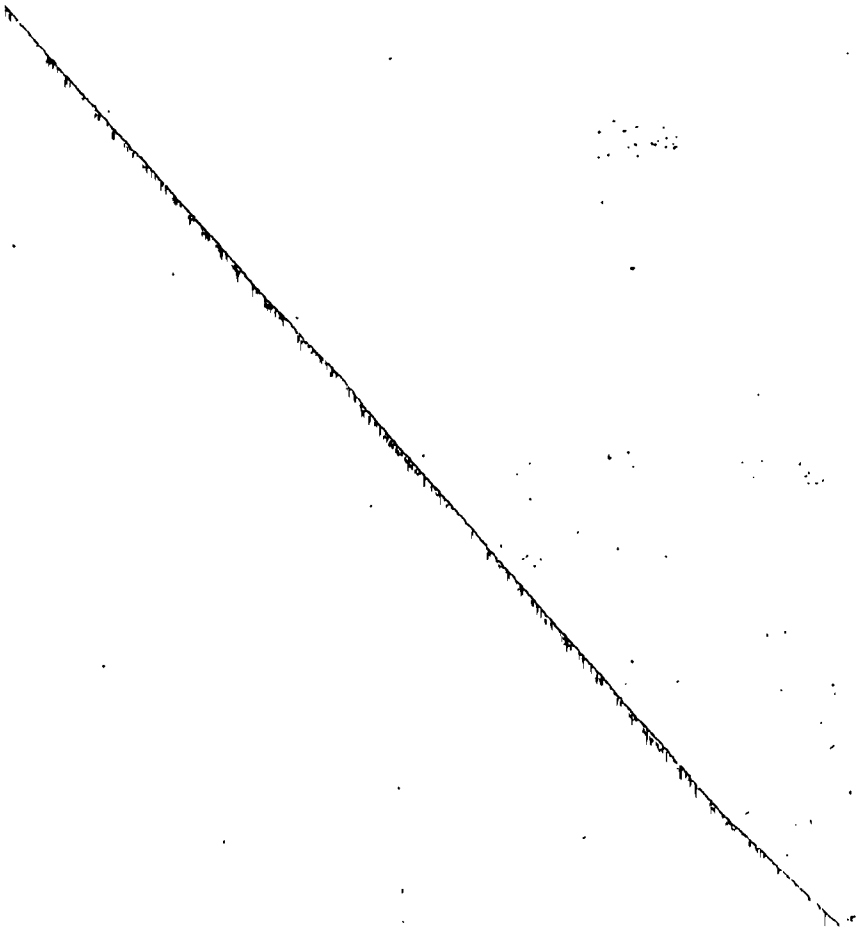

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